FOUNDATIONS of OUR COUNTRY

J. R. SCOPPA

SCOPPA'S AMERICAN HISTORY
~ SERIES ~

FOUNDATIONS of OUR COUNTRY

By

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PREFACE

The vital reason for studying history in school is that it helps boys and girls to understand the conditions and problems which the ordinary citizen of a great republic in modern times must face. Progress depends upon the ability of the citizen to use wisely, preserve, and add to the great achievements which we have inherited from other times and other peoples. If each citizen is to appreciate his responsibility and live up to it, he needs to know what those great achievements are and to understand why and how they developed.

History should be so presented that studying it will prove an enjoyable activity. The development of civilization is a fascinating story. If full advantage is taken of its possibilities for interest and enjoyment, the facts that the boys and girls should remember will make a more vivid impression, and the attitudes which they should acquire will be more lasting. In connection with the study of history the student should be directed toward some reading and some activities which are to be done chiefly for pleasure. History should supply an interest which will furnish wholesome enjoyment during leisure hours.

A history textbook which achieves these purposes will show how conditions in the past have influenced present-day conditions. It is impossible to present all the events of the past. A good history text must select and stress the movements and events that have had the greatest influence on our present civilization.

In presenting these great movements and events, a history text should show a continuous development and should emphasize the relation of cause and effect. A few important dates will serve as milestones. In other words, the history of civilization should be seen as a continuous story which describes the influence of each period of progress upon succeeding periods.

This book pictures the progress of civilization from the day of primitive man to modern times. The contributions of ancient Egypt, Greece, Rome, and medieval Europe have been treated in such a way as to give a vivid impression of the influence of one civilization upon another and to show concretely their combined influence upon modern times. The growth of civilization appears as a continuous development which is still in progress.

Irrelevant material has been omitted. Only details which add to the picture have been included, but the story has been made rich enough in detail to make the picture of world progress vivid and interesting.

The scope of the book includes four important periods of history: *the development of ancient civilizations, the civilization of the Middle Ages, the discovery of new lands,* and *the establishment of thirteen colonies in America.*

Each chapter is introduced by *the central idea* which gives the essence of the chapter in terms of its relation to present day conditions. The last section of each chapter reviews and summarizes the meaning and significance of the chapter in relation to modern times. This gives the pupil, in concise form, a clear view of the important points of the chapter and an understanding of its meaning.

Test exercises and *suggested activities* follow each chapter. The test exercises emphasize important facts and questions of judgment; they ignore unimportant details. Each section is followed by a test covering the entire period. The suggested activities consist of special study projects which require the pupils to secure additional information from supplementary reading, to make maps, to dramatize events, or to collect and study pictures which aid in the interpretation of the material in the chapter. The final chapter gives in three pages a short story of the whole period covered by the book. There is a test exercise following this summary that tests the pupil's grasp of the ideas necessary to an understanding of the entire period.

In the hope that the story of the development of civilization will challenge their interest and help them to become wiser citizens, this book is dedicated to the boys and girls of America.

THE AUTHOR

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SECTION ONE

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT CIVILIZATIONS

CHAPTER I

THE BEGINNING OF CIVILIZATION

The central idea. The study of history shows that the conveniences and opportunities of our modern world are the result of great achievements of many peoples during thousands of years of progress. This chapter shows us the meaning of civilization by comparing the present with the past and reminds us that primitive men started us on the road to civilization more than five hundred thousand years ago.

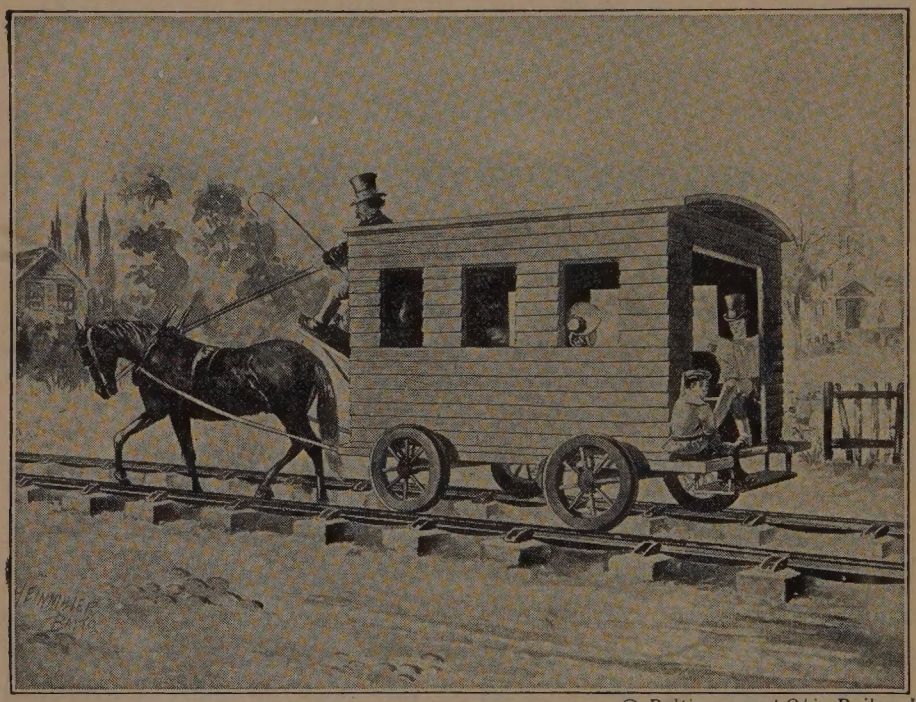
The Meaning of Civilization

The present. You are living in a highly civilized country. Your own community ranks with the most advanced in the world. The house you live in may have all the conveniences and comforts that man has been able to invent. Your school has equipment far above that in the average schools of other countries. The streets which you travel are paved and well lighted. You find on every hand new opportunities to develop your brain and your body. You can use public playgrounds, beaches, parks, museums, libraries, and technical schools. You may plan your future, confident of your chance of success because of the advantages and privileges you enjoy.

All these comforts and luxuries have been made possible by man's creative power. He has developed wonderful means of transportation and communication, such as the airplane and the radio, which bring the ends of the earth very close together.

He has conquered darkness with the electric light and is gradually overcoming disease. Many kinds of machines do his work for him.

The past. Most of us accept these comforts and conven-



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A century ago a typical passenger car on one of our leading railroads looked like this.

iences as a matter of course. Perhaps we feel that things have always been as they are now. But history shows them to us as man's great achievements through centuries of steady development. Each generation has made living better and easier for succeeding generations.

The average home of today possesses advantages of light, heat, and sanitation which are a great improvement over conditions of fifty years ago. Then furnaces were rare, and few

except the rich had bath tubs with hot and cold running water. The royal palace of the eighteenth century was splendid in appearance and elegant in its furnishings, but the royal family had very little in the way of living conveniences. Candles were

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A modern passenger train owned by the same railroad as the horse car pictured on page 2.

the most successful means of artificial light. Open fires heated the palaces very poorly, while water for washing and drinking had to be carried in from wells and streams.

Two hundred years ago there were in America no regular postal systems, no fire-fighting organizations, no street-cleaning departments, and no sewers. We need not go far back into history to find that many of the familiar conveniences which

we have come to regard as necessities were unknown. The story of the growth and spread of civilization is the most fascinating chapter in the story of mankind.

How Civilization Began

Primitive man's gift to civilization. To find the beginnings of civilization, we must turn back to the day of the earliest human beings (at least 500,000 years ago). *Primitive*

Europeans cultivated grain in the Stone Age. The cave woman's mill was a flat rock on which she spread her wheat or barley and pounded it with a smooth stone.

man started us on the road to civilization. Hundreds of thousands of years ago the tree-dwellers and the cavemen gave us stone tools and weapons and discovered for us how to control and use fire. Thousands of years passed during which

primitive men tamed the wild animals and became shepherds living by their flocks and herds.

Finally they learned to cultivate grains so that they need no longer wander in search of food for themselves or pasture for their herds. Many of them settled down to agricultural life in some fertile river valley or on some lake shore. There they progressed much faster than their shepherd relatives.

In their agricultural settlements primitive men built permanent homes of wood or stone or dried mud (brick). They learned to weave cloth which took the place of animal-skin clothing. They learned to bake clay dishes (pottery) to hold their food. They finally learned to use metal tools in place of their stone weapons or wooden implements.

The first civilized people. Primitive men moved slowly toward civilization during those thousands of years from the time human beings first appeared, to the time when civilization began in northern Africa between 3000 B.C. and 4000 B.C. It was *the Egyptians living in the rich valley of the Nile River* who gave us the first marks of civilization—the earliest writing and the earliest metal tools.

Europe in the Ice Age. Primitive men in Europe were handicapped by the cold waves that, four times during the Stone Age, swept down with the creeping glaciers from the north. They were still (about 3000 B.C.) without *writing* with which to make records of business, government, and tradition. They were still without *metal* with which to make tools and to develop industries. The earliest metal was introduced into *southeastern* Europe about 3000 B.C. and its use moved gradually westward and northward across Europe. Probably it did not reach Britain until about 2000 B.C.

The Europeans had no *sailing ships* in which to carry on commerce. All these things and many other possessions of

civilization came from the *Near East,* the lands around the eastern end of the Mediterranean.

In order to understand the course of European history, we must, therefore, turn to the Near East from which came the things which made it possible for our European ancestors to gain the civilization we have inherited.

Civilization moves westward. Civilization began in Egypt between five and six thousand years ago. History seems to prove the saying that civilization follows the setting sun. In Egypt civilization grew and spread up the Mediterranean coast into the western edge of Asia. Then it spread into eastern Europe and reached the Greeks who were not yet out of the Stone Age. The Romans carried civilization into western Europe.

With Columbus the stream of civilization crossed the Atlantic Ocean to America, and now it is being handed on around the world to the savages of the Pacific Islands. The radio and the airplane are carrying civilization to the farthest corners of the earth.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

Write the numbers 1 to 6 along the left margin of a piece of paper. Opposite these numbers write the best ending for each of the sentences below.

1. In order to understand thoroughly conditions about us today we need to know something about
   American history. history since primitive times. European history.
2. Modern comforts and conveniences are the result of the achievements of
   American civilization. Europe. many civilizations.
3. We were started on the road to civilization by
   primitive men. modern Europeans. civilized men.
4. Compared to the length of primitive times, civilized times are
   very short. quite long. about half as long.

5. Primitive men in Europe progressed slowly because of the
   mountains. fierce animals. cold climate.
6. Primitive men progressed toward civilization
   all at the same rate. at different rates. very rapidly.

Suggested Activities

1. Make a list of the discoveries and inventions which uncivilized man bequeathed to civilized times.

References: Van Loon's *The Story of Mankind,* pages 9-17; True's *The Iron Star.* Note that the story of the Iron Star is about Europeans. Remember that the earliest known use of iron was by the people of northern Asia Minor where there are iron mines today.

2. We said that the first human being must have appeared at least 500,000 years ago and that the first civilized people appeared about 5000 years ago. If you divide 500,000 by 5000 you will find that the period since man first appeared has been at least 100 times as long as civilized times. *Draw a line to show how short civilized times have been compared to uncivilized times.* If you let a sixteenth of an inch represent civilized times at the right end of a straight line, then you can figure out how far you must extend your time line to the left to indicate uncivilized times.

CHAPTER II

THE EGYPTIANS, THE FIRST CIVILIZED PEOPLE

The central idea. It was not until about five or six thousand years ago in northern Africa that the first really civilized people appeared. The use of metal to make tools and machines and of writing to preserve and spread learning are the essential marks of civilized people. This chapter will show how the Egyptians laid the earliest foundations for our civilization.

The Earliest Inhabitants of Egypt

The wandering hunters. Looking out today over the waste of rocky hills and stretches of sand trembling in the heat of the blazing sunshine, few travelers guess that the Sahara Desert was once well watered and forest covered. But, truly, there across North Africa once wandered the relatives of the Early Stone Age hunters who lived in early Europe.

These primitive hunters could easily cross into Europe by the land-bridge which then lay across the Mediterranean where the modern map shows only the island of Sicily separated from Africa by a stretch of sea. Their stone tools and weapons have been found lying on the surface of the Sahara and imbedded in the rocky cliffs that wall in the Nile valley. The oldest of such stone implements are probably far older than any found in Europe.

Many thousands of years ago the primitive hunters drifted down into the Nile valley. There they made the change from the hunting life to that of cattle raising and agriculture. Their remains have been found buried thirty or more feet under the surface of the black Nile mud.

The Nile farmers. These people buried their dead in great cemeteries on the sandy rim of the valley. Thousands of these graves have been studied. They show that the primitive an-

Egyptians irrigating their fields. They still irrigate their fields by the oldest known device for lifting water, the Egyptian *shadoof*. Notice how a long pole pivoted to the top of a tall post raises and lowers a leather bucket of water. A ball of dried mud on the opposite end of the pole helps to lift the bucket to the level of the irrigating canal.

cestors of the present-day Egyptian peasants were related to the people who still live about the Mediterranean in Egypt, Italy, Spain, and Greece.

About the bodies in the graves are found clay jars and stone tools. Barley and wheat, the earliest cultivated grains, have been discovered in the jars. These, with scraps of linen found in such graves, show us from what country the first grain and flax came into Europe.

Nile farmers were using irrigation to water their fields of flax and grain over six thousand years ago and probably far earlier. These Stone Age farmers lived in low mud-brick huts. They were ruled by a local chieftain who controlled the irrigation of the district. They paid him every season with a share of their flax and grain. So began the earliest taxation and the first established government among agricultural people.

But the Nile farmer was still without metal tools, without writing, and without ships in which to carry on commerce.

Egyptian Civilization

We found the Egyptians at first in the Stone Age. They were at that time just one of many groups of men, still using stone implements, whose settlements fringed the entire Mediterranean Sea. In their fertile and sheltered Nile valley, the Egyptians enjoyed a great advantage over Europe. They were protected from invading tribes on either side by the desert. When the glaciers came down from the north, they were separated by the Mediterranean from the cold and ice of Europe.

Here at the southeast corner of the Mediterranean Sea, there grew up the first community of men whom we can call civilized. While Europe was held back by the hardships of the Ice Age, Egypt was advancing to the practice of cattle raising, farming by irrigation, and the use of metal. They also

developed a system of writing and of government on a large scale.

The discovery of metal. The first metal to be discovered was probably copper. It was probably on the peninsula of Sinai, at least as early as 4000 B.C., that some wandering Egyptian

The discovery of copper. Some wandering Egyptian probably found the first copper on the Peninsula of Sinai.

may have happened to bank his camp fire with pieces of copper ore lying on the ground about the camp. The charcoal of his wood fire mixed with hot bits of ore piled around to cover the fire, and the copper in metal form melted out of the lumps of ore.

Next morning, as the Egyptian stirred his fire, he discovered a few glittering beads of metal. He may have picked them up and turned them admiringly in the morning sunlight. Before

long, as this happened again, he discovered how these shining beads came to be there. Gradually the Egyptians began to value and keep them, at first only to be worn by the women as ornaments. Later they learned to shape the metal into a blade to replace the stone (flint) knives which they carried in their belts.

Without knowing it, this first wandering Egyptian who picked a little bead of shining copper from the ashes, stood at the dawn of the *Age of Metal.* If he could have looked into the future, he would have seen his discovery of metal lead to the building of great steel-framed buildings, metal bridges, huge factories roaring with the noise of thousands of steel machines, great steel locomotives thundering down vast stretches of shining steel rails. Since the discovery of fire, probably several hundred thousand years earlier, man had made no conquest of the things of earth that could compare in importance with this discovery of the use of metal.

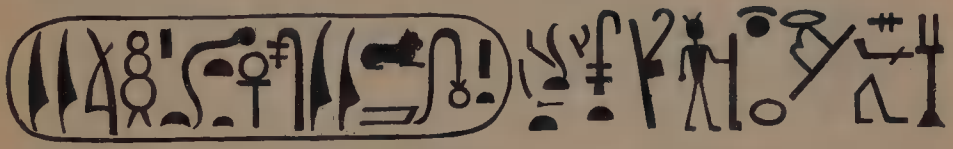
Learning to write. The business of the Stone Age was, of course, very primitive. There were no metals and no money. Buying and selling were only the exchange of one kind of goods for another kind. In all the world there was no writing. If goods were bought on credit, a few strokes scratched on the mud wall of the hut might serve to aid the memory as to the number of fish or jars of grain to be paid for later.

So it happened that in Egypt the payment of the earliest taxes led to the scratching of a rude picture of the basket grain-measures and a number of strokes on the mud wall of the peasant's hut, indicating the number of measures of grain he had paid. The use of these picture signs formed the earliest stage in the process of learning to write.

If the writing of the Egyptians had remained only a series of pictures, such words as *belief, hate, love,* and *beauty* would

never have been written. But when a large number of his pictures became signs, each representing a syllable, it was possible for him to write any word he knew whether the word meant a thing of which he could draw a picture or not. This use of *phonetic* signs was what made *real writing* for the first time.

The Egyptians had real writing as early as 3500 B.C., but they did not stop there. They developed a series of signs,



Egyptian writing from the Rosetta Stone. The Egyptians invented the first real writing when they began using signs like these (hieroglyphics) to stand for syllables in words.

each standing for only a letter—or as we say, they invented an alphabet. There were twenty-four letters in this alphabet. It was the earliest alphabet known, but the Egyptian never really used his new alphabet.

Habit kept him using the old phonetic signs (hieroglyphics) just as habit prevents us now from using a simplified system of spelling in the English language. The alphabet was important because about 1600 B.C. the Asiatic people near Egypt began using an alphabet patterned after the one invented by the Egyptians. This second alphabet was later adopted by the Phoenicians, a small trading nation on the coast of the Mediterranean. The Phoenician traders carried it into Europe where our own alphabet developed from it.

The first writing materials. Meanwhile the Egyptian had adopted convenient materials for writing. He found out that he could make an excellent paint or ink by thickening water

with a little vegetable gum and then mixing in soot from the blackened pots over his fire. Dipping a pointed reed into this mixture he found he could write very well.

He learned also that he could split a kind of river reed, called papyrus, into thin strips, and that he could write on these strips much better than on bits of pottery, bone, or wood. Needing a larger sheet, he hit upon the idea of pasting his papyrus strips together with overlapping edges. This gave him a very thin sheet. By pasting two such sheets together, back to back, the grain crossing at right angles, he made a smooth, tough, pale-yellow paper.

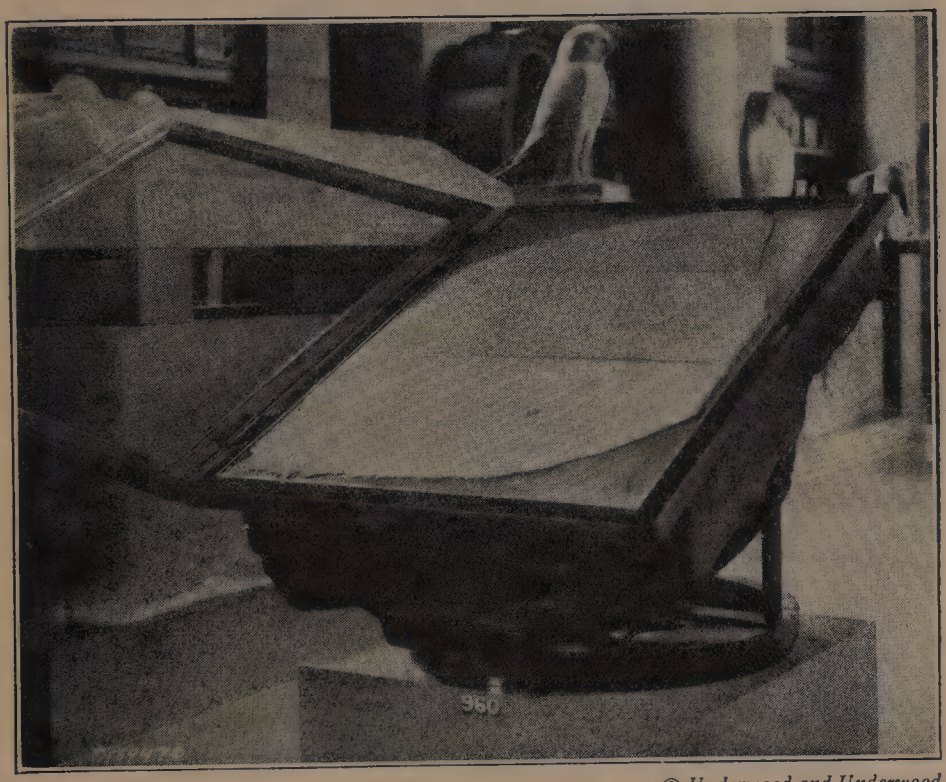
The Egyptians had made the discovery that a thin vegetable tissue gives the best possible surface on which to write. The world still uses similar materials. In this way rose the use of pen, ink, and paper. All three of these descended to us from the Egyptians, and paper still keeps its ancient name, *papyrus*, only slightly changed.

The invention of writing and of a convenient system of records on paper had a greater influence in uplifting the human race than any other intellectual achievement of man. It was more important than all the battles ever fought and all the constitutions ever made.

Reading ancient Egyptian writing. In later times, no one could read the ancient phonetic writing (called hieroglyphics) of the Egyptians. In 1798 a stone, known as the Rosetta Stone, was found by one of Napoleon's army officers when the French invaded Egypt. On it was some Egyptian phonetic writing and some Greek writing. The Greek words repeated what was said in the Egyptian writing. By comparing the two, a French scholar worked out the key by which modern people read the writing of the ancient Egyptian monuments and papyrus rolls. His work made it possible to discover

how great was the learning of the ancient Egyptians and how much civilization owes to them.

Invention of the calendar. The Egyptians, like all other early people when they found it necessary to measure time, used the time from new moon to new moon as a convenient



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The Rosetta Stone. The discovery of this stone, shown here in its case in the British Museum, enabled modern man to read ancient Egyptian writing.

rough measure. If a man had agreed to pay back some borrowed grain at the end of nine moons, and eight moons had passed, he knew that he had one more moon in which to pay it. But the moon month varies in length from twenty-nine to thirty days, and it does not divide the year evenly. The Egyp-

tian soon showed himself more practical in overcoming this inconvenience than his primitive neighbors in other lands.

He stopped using the moon to divide his year. He invented a calendar of twelve months, and made his months all the same length, that is, thirty days each. Then he celebrated five feast days, a kind of holiday week five days long, at the end of each year. That gave him a year of three hundred and sixty-five days. He was not astronomer enough yet to know that every four years he ought to have a leap year of three hundred and sixty-six days, although he discovered this later (in the third century A.D.).

This first convenient calendar was worked out by the Egyptians in 4241 B.C. and its introduction was the *earliest dated event in history*. It is the very calendar which came down to us—although the Romans, when they adopted it, made some awkward changes in the length of the months. A recent movement to change our calendar proposes that we restore the Egyptian's thirty day month or adopt a calendar with a twenty-eight day month in order to secure a more convenient calendar once more.

Naming or numbering years. The method of numbering years from some great event, like our method of numbering them from the birth of Christ, was still unknown. Beginning with the year of Christ's birth we count backward, using the letters *B.C.*, meaning *Before Christ*, to date events that occurred before that time. We say that the first calendar was worked out in 4241 B.C., or 4241 years before Christ was born (the forty-third century before Christ). For events that happened after Christ's birth we count forward, using the letters A.D. These letters stand for the Latin words *Anno Domini*, meaning in the year of our Lord. The letters A.D.

are omitted when it will be clearly understood that the date is after the birth of Christ.

The Egyptians, like our own North American Indians, began naming each year for some remarkable event that happened in it. Lists of these year names which were kept are interesting now as lists of important happenings in early Egyptian times. The earliest of these year lists yet found began about 3400 B.C. and listed the names of about seven hundred years ending about 2700 B.C.

Later, the Egyptians found it more convenient to number the years of each king's reign, and then to date events in the first year of King So-and-so or the tenth year of King So-and-so. They finally had lists covering many centuries.

The Importance of Egyptian Civilization

Because of their discovery of metal and of their invention of writing the Egyptians won the right to be called the *first civilized people.* The beginning of civilization in Egypt is important because it showed clearly that the living creatures of the earth had the power to grow and develop in mind as well as in body. Man could use his mind to discover new ways of living and the wonderful marvels in his universe which made life more interesting and more comfortable.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate piece of paper number the lines 1 to 10. Opposite these numbers write the words which have been left out of the 10 sentences below.

1. The earliest inhabitants of Egypt crossed back and forth from Italy to Africa on _____.

2. Much of the present population of Spain, Italy, Greece, and Egypt is of the same blood as the primitive farmers of _____.

3. The early Egyptians learned to raise cattle and to farm by irrigation while they were still using _____ weapons and implements.

4. The first metal used by the Egyptians to make tools was _____.

5. The use of _____, each standing for a syllable in a word, made the first real writing.

6. The Egyptians invented an _____ which they made little use of in their writing.

7. Our modern word _____ comes from the Egyptian word papyrus.

8. Our modern _____ came down to us from the Egyptians who counted time in years of 365 days.

9. The method of numbering _____ from some great event, as we do from the birth of Christ, was unknown to the Egyptians.

10. Two essential marks of a civilized people are _____ and the use of _____.

Suggested Activities

1. On an outline map of the Mediterranean World indicate the location of the Nile River, the Island of Sicily, the Sahara Desert, the Peninsula of Sinai, and Phoenicia. Save your map to be used with the next chapter.

2. Find out all you can about the invention of an alphabet and the beginnings of writing in Egypt. You will find some interesting information by reading "Wonders of the Alphabet" by Henry Eckford in *Stories of the Ancient World* Retold from St. Nicholas; and Hodgdon's *The Enchanted Past,* pages 33-50.

CHAPTER III

EGYPT, A GREAT CIVILIZED EMPIRE

The central idea. The Egyptians discovered and invented many things that have influenced the civilizations of all ages. They became highly civilized before the people of Europe had learned to write. We shall learn in this chapter what important contributions the Egyptians made to the development of civilization.

Records of Egyptian Civilization

Records found in monuments. Dry and rainless Egypt made a wonderful storehouse for the works and records of ancient man. The links that connect primitive man with the long chain of developing civilization have been found preserved in the dry air of the countless tombs, engraved on stone, or hidden under the dry desert sands. The pyramids, as a traveler sees them today, are like a vast storybook. They tell, age after age, the fascinating story of ancient man and what he achieved so many thousands of years ago.

The pyramids. Let us follow a traveler of today as his train carries him southward across the delta of the Nile. The delta is a low flat country dotted with little villages of mud-brick huts and, here and there, groves of graceful palm trees. The landscape between is unbelievably green and is crisscrossed by a network of irrigation canals.

The traveler may see dark-skinned, slender men along the banks of the canals. They sway up and down as they work the old-fashioned mechanisms to lift the irrigation buckets which keep the canals full of water. The delta and the valley above as far as the First Cataract contain together over ten thousand square miles of fertile land, a little more than the amount of land in the state of Vermont.

The train rounds a bend, and through an opening in the palms the traveler is fairly blinded by the blazing sunshine from the western desert. Out in the desert he sees a group of splendid pyramids rising above the glare of the sands. He is

The Great Sphinx and the Pyramids. The Great Sphinx before the Pyramid of Khafre lies like a sentinel guarding the vast cemetery of Gizeh where the ancient pharoahs were buried.

seeing for the first time the famous pyramids of Gizeh, the cemetery of the Egyptian kings in the Age of Pyramids.

The art of building. Not more than a hundred and fifty years before the Great Pyramid at Gizeh was built, the Egyptians were still building simple tombs of sunbaked brick for

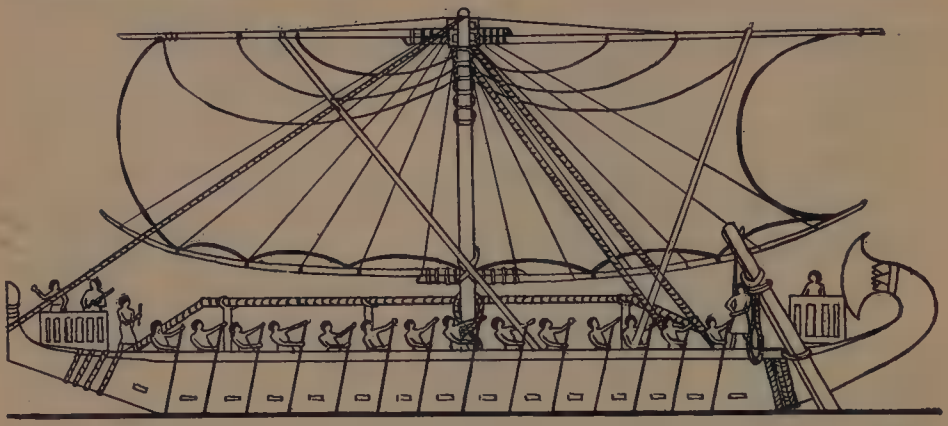
their kings. Then some skillful workman found that he could use his copper tools to cut square blocks of limestone. We know the name of the royal architect, Imhotep, who built the earliest stone buildings (about 3000 B.C.). This great *art of building* is one of the things which marked the entrance of man into the realm of civilization. Architecture passed from the earliest example of stone building to the Great Pyramid of Gizeh in only one hundred and fifty years. The Great Pyramid was being built in 2900 B.C.

It helps us to realize what wonderful progress was made in architecture when we know that the Great Pyramid covers thirteen acres. It is a solid mass of stone containing about 2,300,000 blocks of limestone, each weighing on an average of two and a half tons; that is, each block is as heavy as a large wagonload of coal. The pyramid at the base is 755 feet long. This is about a block and three-quarters (counting twelve city blocks to a mile). It is nearly 500 feet high.

A story by the Greek historian, Herodotus, tells us that a hundred thousand men were working on this royal tomb for twenty years. We can well believe it. Most of this knowledge of architecture was gained during the thirtieth century B.C.; that is, between 3000 and 2900 B.C. Such rapid progress in mechanical power can be found in no other hundred years of the world's history until the nineteenth century A.D.

The earliest government. The kings from 3000 to 2900 B.C. who could control and feed a hundred thousand workmen laboring on an immense building were no longer village chieftains like the one to whom the Stone Age farmers had paid their earliest taxes. The Egyptian villages had grown into cities. Finally all the cities had been brought under the power of one king who ruled a united Egypt of several million people. This was the *earliest great unified nation.*

The king was so reverenced that the people did not mention him by name, but spoke of the palace in which he lived. They called it the *Great House,* or in Egyptian, *Pharaoh.* The village chiefs all over Egypt now collected taxes for the Pharaoh. It was also their business to try the law cases, and every village



An Egyptian ship. The Egyptians had the earliest known ships. They used sail boats like this with many galley slaves to man the oars.

judge had before him the written law which bade him judge justly. Here developed in early Egypt the *first government on a large scale* with the *first written law* and a great body of officials to enforce it throughout the land.

The earliest known ships. In that day the Pharaohs had long been using the *earliest known ships* to carry on trade across the end of the Mediterranean with the coast of Phoenicia. On the walls of a pyramid temple built in the twenty-eighth century B.C. is painted the earliest representation of a seagoing ship. Yet at that time the Pharaohs had already been carrying on over-sea trade for hundreds of years.

The ships carried copper from the Pharaoh's copper mines in Sinai. They sailed down the Red Sea to the land called

Punt (now the Somali Coast of Africa) to bring back ebony, ostrich feathers, and fragrant gums secured from the black savages of central Africa.

The later Pharaohs even built a canal from the north end of the Red Sea westward to the nearest branch of the Nile in the eastern part of the delta. Then their ships could sail up the Red Sea through the Nile into the Mediterranean Sea. This forerunner of the present Suez Canal was as important to the Egyptians as the Panama Canal is to us today. By the fifteenth century B.C. the Egyptian fleet controlled the Mediterranean, and one of the Pharaoh's generals had become governor of the islands in the Aegean Sea.

Egypt at the height of her power. By 1500 B.C. Egypt was at the height of her greatness and power. She had conquered Palestine, Phoenicia, and Syria—all the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea. The Pharaoh's government collected taxes in produce—grain, live stock, wine, honey, linen, and the like—in all the lands from the African coast at the southern end of the Red Sea to the heart of Asia Minor.

How the People Lived

Life pictured on walls of pyramids. A traveler may enter the open door of one of the pyramids and find himself in a room called the chapel. Its walls are covered with carved and painted scenes in vivid colors picturing the everyday life on the estate of the noble who is buried in the tomb. The scenes give a good picture of the everyday life of civilized Egypt.

Agriculture. Here are the earliest pictures of agricultural life showing the Egyptian peasant plowing, hoeing, and sowing. He is shown driving oxen to the plow which he invented and we have inherited. The donkey is being used in the harvest-

ing of grain, but there are no horses. The horse and war chariot were brought into Egypt some centuries later (about 1800 B.C.) from Asia Minor.

None of the workers in the pictures own any land. Some of them may be freemen following their own business or

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The work of Egyptian jewelers in the 17th century B.C. This collection is now in the museum at Cairo, Egypt.

industry. Many are slaves working the fields on the great estates. Over them are the great landowners, the Pharaoh, and his lords and officials.

Manufacturing. On the next wall are pictured the skilled workers. The coppersmiths made excellent copper tools—chisels, bow drills, and saws that would saw great blocks of stone for the pyramids. They could furnish, for the earliest known plumbing, a quarter of a mile of copper drain for the pyramid temple. The goldsmiths and jewelers made jewelry

of hammered gold and splendid gold vases inlaid with turquoise that are scarcely equaled by the best jewelers of today.

The potter no longer shaped his clay bowls and jars with his fingers and burned them in an open fire as the Stone Age potter did. He set them upon a whirling disk and cleverly

Egyptian potters at work. The potter shaped his clay on the whirling disk and burned his finished jars in the closed furnace.

shaped the clay as the disk spun around. When he burned his finished jars he packed them in a closed furnace to protect them from the wind so that they burned evenly. The glass-workers spread glass on tiles, making the gorgeous glazes used to decorate house walls. They manufactured many-colored bottles and vases to be shipped across the Mediterranean.

On the ancient hand looms the weavers made linens as fine as silk and also lovely tapestries. The tapestries were hung on the palace walls or used to shade a noble's roof garden. Barelegged peasants gathered papyrus reeds in the Nile marshes. The long yellow sheets of paper were shipped in bales across

the Mediterranean. Shipbuilders worked on the earliest sea-going ships. Cabinetmakers made chairs and couches. They overlaid them with gold and silver, inlaid them with ebony and ivory, and upholstered them with soft leather cushions.

Trade and taxation. The Egyptians had developed their industries wonderfully since the day when they had shaped their first stone hatchet. Their products were carried on boats and barges along the Nile. They were taken to the Pharaoh's treasury as taxes or to the markets of the towns to be bartered. As yet, there was *no coined money*. The taxes were still paid in grains and other products. Buying and selling among the common people in the market place was still just an exchange, perhaps of a pair of sandals for a fish. In the large transactions of the palace, heavy rings of gold of a standard weight and similar rings of copper circulated like money. They were the forerunners of coined money.[1]

Painting and sculpture. Only trained artists could have done the fine paintings in the pyramid chapels. But it is plain that the Egyptian painter had not yet learned how to secure the effect of distance or of thickness and roundness in a picture. The sculptor was the greatest artist among the Egyptians. His statues were carved in stone or wood and colored in natural colors. The eyes of the statues were of rock crystal and to this day still sparkle as if alive. More lifelike resemblances of human faces have seldom been produced in any age, although these are the earliest ones in the history of art.

Wonderful statues of the kings were set up in and near the pyramid temples. The most famous of them all is the Great Sphinx which guards the entrance to the cemetery of Gizeh.

[1] Coined money was common by 600 B.C. The first coined money was made shortly after 700 B.C. when the King of Lydia in Asia Minor had his image stamped upon the pieces of metal circulating in his kingdom.

It is carved from a natural rock in front of the second pyramid. It is a huge stone image in the shape of an immense crouching lion with the head of a man. The face is that of Khafre, the

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A model of the throne room of a pharaoh of the 13th century B.C. The Egyptians painted the walls of their buildings with scenes in brilliant colors and supported the ceilings by columns like these in the throne room of the pharaoh's palace.

ruler who was buried in the second pyramid. The Great Sphinx is the largest statue in the world.

Architecture. Egyptian architecture in stone grew to be more and more wonderful for its beauty as well as for its size. The temples near the pyramids had a high roof over the middle aisle and a lower roof over an aisle on either side. This arrangement, with windows occupying the difference in level between the two roofs, was copied in the architecture of Greece and Rome. Finally it became the forerunner of the Christian cathedral as it developed in Europe thirty-five hundred years later.

The Egyptians also gave the Greeks their beautiful colonnade. The roofs of the Egyptian temples were supported by rows of graceful round columns (colonnades). Some of these were in the shape of palm trunks crowned with their tufts of drooping foliage. Others were like lotus stalks rising from the floor as if to support the ceiling upon their swaying blossoms.

Near the temples often stood huge obelisks, carved to the tops with records of the deeds of some ruler. The obelisks are tall spire-shaped monuments. The largest one on the Nile is a tapering, four-sided spear of granite in a single piece nearly a hundred feet high.

Literature. Egypt has left us, preserved in the tombs of its nobles, parts of the oldest libraries in the world. The oldest of all existing books are in the form of rolls of papyrus which were long ago packed in jars and ranged in rows on the noble's library shelf. They are the oldest literature in the world. The rolls tell the earliest tale of Sinbad the Sailor, shipwrecked in the Unknown Ocean beyond the Red Sea. Among them was found the earliest prophecy of a *good shepherd,* meaning a good king who would bring justice and happiness for all. The

earliest songs and poems were there. There, too, were the earliest books on medicine and the beginnings of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and astronomy.

One medical book said that the lower limbs of the body were controlled by the brain. That was the first time that the word brain was ever written down. They learned, too, that the heart was the driving power of the body; but they still thought that disease was caused by demons.

They knew a good deal about drugs and spices. Their religion taught that the soul would enter the body after death. To preserve the bodies they embalmed them with spices and drugs and wrapped them carefully in bandages. These bodies (mummies) were preserved so skillfully that some are still in existence and fairly well preserved today.

Knowledge of science. Geometry grew out of the necessity for laying out new boundaries every year when the Nile had flooded the valley. In order to do this the Egyptians worked out a system of lines and angles. This was the beginning of geometry.

The cloudless skies led them to study the sun, the moon, and the stars. They learned to count time in years of 365 days as a result of their study of astronomy. Their knowledge of geography grew with their trade and the spread of their great empire. Their fleets sailed the Mediterranean and Red Seas. Their caravans went into the heart of black Africa. They gave the world its earliest store of knowledge about science.

The Hebrews' Gift to Civilization

The earliest mention of the Hebrews occurs in a letter from the terrified Egyptian governor of Jerusalem, who begs the Pharaoh for help, saying, "the Khabiri (Hebrews) are taking

the cities of the king. No ruler remains to the king, my lord; all are lost." The letter was written in the fourteenth century B.C. when Egypt's empire in Asia was falling to pieces.

The Hebrews belonged to the wandering shepherd tribes of

Hebrew shepherds. Abraham lived in a tent like this.

the Arabian desert. Moving with their flocks and herds, these tribes continually drifted into the grasslands on the edge of the desert and from there shifted over into the towns to begin a settled life.

The book of Genesis in the Old Testament names Abraham as the first great Hebrew leader. Abraham, who lived in Ur of the Chaldees, a town near the mouth of the Euphrates

River, drove his flocks from the Euphrates River valley to the land of Canaan (Palestine) where he found pastures for his flocks and his herds. Palestine became the final home of the Hebrews. It was a narrow strip between the desert and the sea, a region a little larger than the state of Vermont, lying along the southeastern corner of the Mediterranean south of Phoenicia.

For two hundred years (about 1400 to 1200 B.C.) the Hebrews kept drifting in from the desert to Palestine. One group of tribes moved down into Egypt where finally a cruel Pharaoh made slaves of them.

A famous Bible story tells how it happened. Jacob, the father of twelve sons, was Abraham's descendant. Joseph was Jacob's favorite son. Joseph had ten brothers older than himself. Because Jacob favored Joseph, the older brothers became jealous. They grew to hate Joseph so that one day they sold him to some merchants who took him to Egypt. There he became a slave to a captain of Pharaoh's guard. He was falsely accused of a crime and cast into prison where he interpreted the dreams of two other prisoners. This gained for him a reputation as an interpreter of dreams.

It happened that Pharaoh was puzzled by a dream because he could not secure a satisfactory interpretation of it. Joseph interpreted this dream to mean that there would be seven years of good harvests followed by seven years of famine. Pharaoh was so impressed with Joseph's wisdom that he made him overseer of Egypt. Joseph stored away the surplus grain during the seven years of plenty so that the storehouses were filled when the famine came.

But across the Red Sea in Palestine the Hebrews had not been so wise. They had no surplus when the seven years of famine came. Jacob sent his sons to Egypt to buy grain. They

bought grain from Joseph but did not recognize him as their brother. When they came to Egypt on a second visit to purchase food, Joseph made himself known to his brothers. He forgave them for their treachery and invited them to make their home in Egypt.

Joseph's father with all his tribe came to Egypt to live. After many years the Hebrews became so numerous that the Egyptian rulers were alarmed. In order to weaken the Hebrews, a cruel Pharaoh made slaves of them and decreed that all male babies among them should be put to death.

In order to save her child, one Hebrew mother placed her infant boy in a basket and hid him in the reeds near the bank of a stream. The daughter of Pharaoh found the basket with the baby. She was delighted and adopted the child. The boy was called Moses, which means "saved from the waters." As he grew up the princess provided him with the ablest teachers. By the time he was a young man he was no doubt the best educated Hebrew in Egypt. He soon became the leader of his people.

Finally Moses succeeded in leading the Hebrews (about 1200 B.C.) out of Egypt and back to Palestine. There he instructed them in the Ten Commandments which he said God had given him on Mt. Sinai. Those commandments formed the basis of the Jewish faith as well as the foundation of Christianity.

The Hebrews had no painting, sculpture, or architecture; but they did develop a great literature. They had borrowed an alphabet from the Phoenician merchants and learned to write on papyrus with the Egyptian pen and ink. The rolls of papyrus containing the *earliest known written history* (beautiful tales of their national leaders) and the religious teachings of their prophets were the first books of the Hebrews.

It was not until Christian times that the Jewish leaders put

all the old writings of the Hebrew fathers together to form one book. These writings tell the story of how a rude shepherd folk came from the wilds of the Arabian desert to live in Palestine. There they went through experiences which made them the religious teachers of the world. The Hebrews developed a belief in *one God* and His fatherly care for all men, which *laid the foundation for the leading religion of the civilized world* today. Printed in Hebrew, their literature forms the Bible of the Jews of the present day. Translated into English, their writings are called the Old Testament and have become the sacred book of the Christian nations.

Reasons for Egypt's Decline

The great state of Egypt, which had developed so high a degree of civilization long before Europe had come out of the Stone Age, lost its power. It did so because of the growing weakness inside the Empire and because of the groups of foreigners who were attacking the Empire from the outside.

Weakness inside the Empire. The Egyptians were weak partly because they were still using old-fashioned bronze weapons and partly because they depended upon weak rulers and an army of hired foreigners to fight their battles. The peasant class and the energetic nobles who had once made up Egypt's armies, discouraged by bad government, were no longer interested in their government or their army.

Foreign invaders. Under such conditions the foreigners finally invaded Egypt in such numbers that in the middle of the twelfth century B.C. the weakened Egyptian Empire fell. Among the foreigners were some of the earliest dwellers in Europe (from Italy and Greece), the civilized people from Crete and their colonies on the islands of the Aegean Sea and the mainland of Greece, and the warlike nations of Asia Minor.

These foreign people were themselves fleeing southward before the coming of uncivilized tribes from north of the Black and Caspian Seas.

Pictured on the wall of an Egyptian temple there is a scene of the struggle between the Egyptians and the incoming foreigners. It is the earliest surviving picture of a naval battle. It shows a sea fight somewhere along the Syrian coast. In this fight the last of the Egyptian Emperors beat off a fleet of Phillistines, a tribe from the civilized island of Crete. These Phillistines and their relatives in Crete and in the islands of the Aegean Sea were fleeing before the uncivilized Europeans from the north. They crossed the sea and broke upon the shores of the southeastern Mediterranean between the Nile delta and the harbors of Phoenicia. It was this wave of fleeing Aegean people who gave the final push which overturned the tottering Egyptian Empire.

The coming of uncivilized people from the north. Into the civilized world of the eastern Mediterranean were beginning to come the uncivilized peoples who lived behind the Balkan Mountains and the Black Sea. These people were the Indo-Europeans. Some of them came into Asia Minor to build the great empire called Persia. Another group of tribes wandered down with their flocks into Europe. These were the Greeks. They were soon to conquer the East and to take over its great gift of civilization. With these uncivilized northerners in Europe we must begin a new chapter in the history of the development of civilization.

What Egypt Contributed to Civilization

Egypt rose to a leading position in the Mediterranean world and contributed a wonderful foundation for civilization. The most striking achievements by which the Egyptians helped to bring in and develop civilization were:

1. The discovery of metal
2. The invention of writing
3. The earliest government of a large population
4. The earliest seagoing ships
5. Great progress in industries
6. A remarkable development of art
7. The beginnings of literature and learning

But there were some other necessary things which reached a high development at the same time. These were the beliefs in right living and in kindness to others. Among the Egyptians, for the first time in human experience, man rose from a struggle with purely material and physical forces to high ideas about moral values. This influenced all of Egyptian life and showed especially in their religion.

The Egyptians believed that their gods not only controlled the sun and the earth and the waters but a world of right and wrong as well. Every man was responsible to the gods for his behavior. There was a life after death where his soul must answer for his earthly character. But the Hebrews, a subject people in the Egyptian Empire, went farther in this direction than the Egyptians themselves. High ideals of right and wrong were as important to civilization as the conquest of fire or the discovery of metal.

The Egyptian Empire came to an end but the civilization developed in Egypt spread to other nations and became the foundation of our present day civilization.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper write *yes* or *no* opposite the number of each of the following questions.

1. Did the Egyptians erect some of the largest stone buildings in the world?
2. When the Pyramids were built, did the Egyptians still live in separate cities with no central government?

3. Did the Egyptians use the earliest known ships in carrying on commerce?
4. Did the Egyptians have a canal which served to connect the Red Sea and the Mediterranean as the Suez Canal does now?
5. Was it the Egyptians who tamed the first horses?
6. Did the Pharaoh collect his taxes in coined money?
7. Is the great Sphinx the largest statue in the world?
8. Has modern architecture inherited anything from ancient Egypt?
9. Did the early Egyptians discover that the brain controls the lower limbs?
10. Did the life and religion of the Egyptians show a finer set of moral ideals than those of the Hebrews?

Suggested Activities

1. On the map used for chapter II indicate the location of the Red Sea, the Arabian desert, Palestine, and Crete.
2. Read the famous story of *Sinbad the Sailor.* Look in the encyclopedia under *Sinbad* to find out what later peoples used this story in their literature.
3. Read the story of Joseph and the Hebrews who went to Egypt.

References: The Bible, Genesis, chapter 27, the last four verses in chapter 39, and chapters 41 to 47; Hodgdon, J. R., *The Enchanted Past,* chapter VI.

4. Learn how the wonderful stone buildings and statues tell the story of ancient Egypt.

References: Arnold's "The Story of the Sphinx" and Fenn's "There were Giants in those Days" in *Stories of the Ancient World* Retold from St. Nicholas; Lamprey's *Children of Ancient Egypt;* Hodgdon's *The Enchanted Past,* chapter II.

CHAPTER IV

THE BEGINNING OF EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION

The central idea. To understand American civilization we need to study its beginnings in Europe. The Greeks were the first Europeans to become civilized. We shall discover in this chapter how the Greeks were influenced by their neighbors in western Asia and Egypt and how they became civilized.

The Coming of the Greeks

Our Indo-European ancestors. Many of the shepherds of uncivilized early Europe went on wandering in the grasslands of the north after their relatives had settled down to agricultural life. They wandered with their flocks and herds along the north side of the Black Sea, through southern Russia, and far into Asia, north and east of the Caspian Sea.

These shepherds of the north were a group of peoples of the white race which we call Indo-European. The Indo-Europeans were the ancestors of most of the present peoples of Europe. Some of these shepherd tribes drifted southward and westward into the settled communities, just as we saw the Hebrews of the Arabian desert going into Palestine.

The Greeks. The people we call Greeks were a group of tribes belonging to these Indo-European shepherd peoples. Probably not long after 2000 B.C. the rude Greek tribesmen began moving down from the Danube River valley into the peninsula we call Greece. There (about 1500 to 1200 B.C.) they found the great stone fortresses and beautiful palaces of the trading towns built by the people of Crete and of the Aegean Islands. They found bronze implements, beautiful pottery, and many of the refinements of Oriental civilization

which had been brought to the shores of Europe. But there was still no writing in Europe.

Aegean civilization lost. The Greeks conquered the

The rude Greek tribesmen came down from the north about 2000 B.C.

Aegeans, whom they found living in Greece, and presently learned something about ships and sea travel from them. Then the European shepherds crossed the sea to conquer the Aegeans

of Crete and other islands off the coast of their new home. By 1000 B.C. the Greeks had taken possession of Crete and of all the islands in the Aegean Sea and were invading western Asia Minor.

Most of the civilization of the Aegean peoples in Greece and on the islands disappeared. The barbarian Greeks learned just enough of the Aegean industries to lay a foundation upon which they were later to build up the highest civilization of the ancient world. Many of the Aegean people fled. Those who were left, intermarried with their Greek conquerors. This mixed race of Aegeans and Greeks became the wonderfully talented and intelligent Greeks of history.

The Greeks Take up a Settled Life

The earliest Greek government. The Greeks, who conquered the Aegeans and began a settled life on the eastern fringe of Europe, were uncivilized nomads. They had no architecture, no commerce, no system of writing, and no organized government. From their old wandering life they brought the loose grouping of families known as tribes. A *council* of the old men (elders) sometimes decided questions of tribal importance. Probably once a year, at some important feast, an *assembly* of all the weapon-bearing men of the tribe was held to express their opinion on the question of a war or migration.

Later European governments, and even our own government in the United States, have been influenced by early Indo-European ideas of government. Our word *senate,* coming from the Latin word meaning *old man,* suggests the council of old men. Our House of Representatives bears some similarity to the ancient tribal assembly.

Each Greek tribe settled down and formed a group of villages. The tribe divided the land among the families by lot

and began to cultivate it. But flocks and herds continued to be the greatest wealth of the Greeks for hundreds of years after they had taken up agriculture.

A settled life and disputes over land made organized government necessary. The tribal chieftains became kings and each

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The Acropolis in present-day Athens. Pericles had the Parthenon built on the top of the Acropolis.

tribal group of villages grew together and at last formed one city.

The Greek "City-State." The growth of these cities was very important in the political life of the Greeks. The organized city became the only nation the Greeks ever knew. Each city had its own laws, its own army, and its own gods; each citizen owed a tribal duty to his own city and to no other. Overlooking the city from a central hilltop was the king's castle called the *citadel* or *acropolis*. Before long a wall was built about the houses and the market below. Such a walled city with the tribal lands about it formed a little "city-state."

Hundreds of such city-states grew up on the mainland of

Greece, the islands of the Aegean, and the coast of Asia Minor. It was in the city-states that the great Greek civilization developed.

The Influence of the East on Greek Civilization

The Phoenician traders. Long after 1000 B.C. the life of the Greeks was still rude and barbarous. But Phoenician merchants were bringing them the civilization of the Orient. The Greek townsmen had already changed the shabby sheepskin of their nomad days for a knee-length garment of woven wool. They called it a kiton (ke-ton′). That was the Phoenician word used by the merchants who brought it to them.

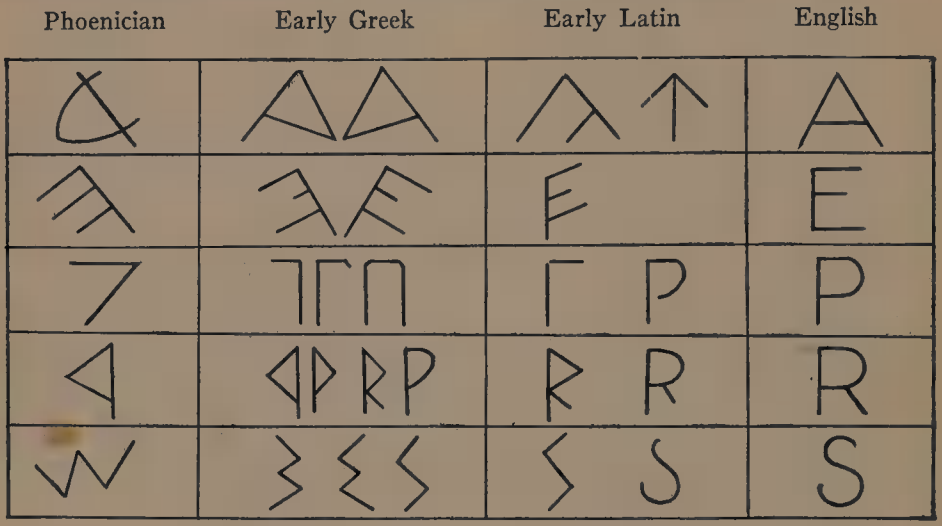
The Greeks bought many other things from the Phoenician ships—glass perfume bottles, carved ivory combs, gold jewelry, bronze platters, and furniture inlaid with ivory and gold. The European Greeks were slowly learning from the Phoenicians new styles of dress, the decorative art of the ancient East, and eastern methods of manufacture.

The Phoenicians had learned their methods of manufacturing in almost all cases from Egypt. But they borrowed their artistic designs from the many different peoples with whom they traded. The Greeks learned to imitate the designs on the metal platters and carved furniture brought by the Phoenician ships. They found in the patterns of these designs palm trees, lotus flowers, the Assyrian tree of life, the sphinx, and the winged horse.

Writing in Europe. It was the Phoenicians who brought to the Greeks a priceless gift, far more valuable than all the manufactured wares of the Orient. It was the most important contribution that ever reached Europe from abroad. This new gift was the alphabet which the Asiatics had developed from Egyptian writing and which the clever Phoenicians had bor-

rowed. Their merchants kept all their business records in this new and convenient writing on papyrus.

The Greeks, crowding around the Phoenician ships, often found the Phoenicians handling bits of pale-yellow paper on



The Development of Our Alphabet

which were written bills and lists of merchandise in strange black signs. Here and there a Greek merchant, thumbing the Phoenician tradesman's papyrus bills, finally learned the alphabet in which they were written and slowly began to note down Greek words spelled with Phoenician letters.

In using the alphabet the Greeks displayed superior intelligence. They noticed that there were no Phoenician letters standing for vowels. They noticed also in the Phoenician alphabet a few letters representing consonants which did not exist in Greek speech. They began (about 900 B.C.) to use these extra letters for the Greek vowels. Thus they took the final step in working out a complete alphabet and laying a foundation for our present alphabet.

The Phoenician alphabet spread from Greece to Italy and at last throughout Europe. Every alphabet in the civilized world from India westward has descended from the Phoenician alphabet.

The Growth of Democracy

Lack of Greek union. We have seen the Greeks becoming civilized under the influence of the Orient. But the Greeks developed a very different kind of government from that in the East. We saw the Egyptian cities uniting into one large and powerful nation on the Nile. But the Greeks never united into a single Greek nation. The beautiful mountains and deep bays of Greece itself shut the different communities away from each other. Then, too, the cities of Greece were separated from their relatives on the Aegean Islands and in Asia Minor.

By 1000 B.C. there were hundreds of little city-states whose people had lived so long in separate communities that they had developed habits and dialects that differed widely. Each Greek showed such intense loyalty to his own god and his own city that a union of the Greek states never took place.

The power of the nobles. We remember that the government of the Greek tribe was carried on by a king, a council of elders, and an assembly of all the weapon-bearing men of the tribe. Sometimes the rule of the king was unjust. Very early there rose a class of hereditary landholding nobles. By fraud, unjust seizure of lands, union of families in marriage, and many other means, certain strong and clever men were able to become great landholders. This class of great landholding nobles presently became so powerful that they gained complete control of the council. Wise old men from the common people were no longer admitted to the council.

The nobles went to live in the city. They had wealth enough

to buy costly weapons and time enough to practice the use of them. They became the chief protectors of the state in time of war. They elected one of their number, whom they called an *archon,* to assist the king in time of war. Finally in many cities the nobles overthrew the king altogether and the archons ruled in the king's place.

The country peasant, on the other hand, worked ceaselessly in his small field. He was too poor to buy weapons and had no time to practice the use of them. Many of the peasants fell into debt, lost their lands to the noble class, and themselves became day laborers; or, still worse, they sold themselves to pay off their debts, and so became slaves.

If the peasant wanted to have any influence in government he must go up to the city and attend the assembly of the people. When he did that he found there only a few of his fellow peasants dressed in their dingy goatskins. The shrunken assembly, which had once been the gathering of all the weapon-bearing men of the tribe, became a feeble group of a few peasants and poor townsmen. Their old-time rights had been restricted until there was left only the privilege of voting their approval of the actions already decided upon by the king and the council. The few peasants who attended the assembly returned to their little farms discouraged and became less and less active in government.

A new influence for democracy. But times in Greece were changing. The Greeks were beginning to build better ships and manufacture finer goods than their eastern teachers. A new class of men of wealth was rising in the cities. These were the merchants. The new wealthy merchants opposed the nobles bitterly.

The improvement in Greek manufactures made all work in metal so cheap that the ordinary man could buy weapons and

a suit of armor. In addition, new methods of fighting, developed by the Spartans, made the ordinary citizen important as a foot soldier in the army. The chariot of the noble was no longer useful in battle and was seen only in chariot races. By reason of their increasing importance to the state the power of the lower class was growing much greater.

In almost all the Greek cities in Asia Minor, the Aegean Islands, Greece, and Italy the people had gained power by commercial prosperity. In these cities they began gathering about a leader to overthrow the hereditary king and the council. This leader in each state, usually a noble, was made ruler of the state as a result of the power of the people. These leaders were the first champions of democracy. They looked after the rights of the people and checked the nobles. They built great public works such as harbor improvements, state buildings, and temples. They encouraged art, music, and literature.

Written law. Up to this time all Greek law had been a matter of customs handed down orally from generation to generation. There were no written laws in Greece as there were in the Orient. It was very easy for a judge to twist the unwritten law to favor the man who gave him the most valuable gift. The common people demanded that the inherited oral laws be written down.

After a long struggle the people of Athens secured such a written code of laws (about 624 B.C.). It was a very severe code but at least everybody could know the exact letter of the law. It was not long until the great Athenian statesman, Solon, was elected archon (594 B.C.). He made the first *Greek code of laws by which all free men were given equal justice under the law.*

One of Solon's laws provided that any one against whom the judges had decided in a lawsuit could appeal the case to a jury

of citizens over thirty years of age, selected by lot. This and other changes greatly improved a citizen's chance of securing justice. Some of these laws have descended to our own time and have become the basis of some of our present-day laws.

Value of citizenship. Solon also set up a new constitution which gave to all citizens a voice in the control of the city government. It divided the citizens into classes according to the amount of their incomes. The wealthy nobles were the only ones who could hold the highest offices, and the peasants were allowed to hold only the lowest offices.

The government was still in the hands of the nobles, but the poorest free citizen could now be sure of the right to vote in the assembly of the people. Later a law was made which gave the people the power to banish or ostracize any citizen who had become so powerful that he was considered dangerous to the state. The length of the banishment was ten years. The people could vote on the ostracism of dangerous citizens once each year.

To cast his vote the citizen had only to pick up one of the broken bits of pottery (called an ostracon) lying in the market place, write the name of the citizen to be banished upon it, and drop the bit of pottery in the voting urn.

Within the next century the people attacked the power of the nobles in the council of elders. In Athens they limited its power to the trial of murder cases and the settlement of questions of state religion. That completely deprived the Athenian Council of governing power.

A lawmaking assembly. Meantime a popular council of five hundred members had grown up and gained the power to carry on most of the business of the government. It worked by dividing itself into ten groups of fifty each. Each group served a little over a month each year.

At the same time the citizen juries set up by Solon's law were taking the place of the assembly and becoming the real law-making body. You remember that the jury members were chosen from among the citizens by lot. The membership had been increased to about six thousand jurors and each member was paid by the city-state, so that the poorest citizen could afford to leave his work to serve on the jury.

Choosing officials. Now, too, the right to hold office was given to all citizens, except that the office of archon was not open to a laborer who was entirely without money. More remarkable still, all offices, except that of military commander (strategus), were finally chosen by lot from the whole body of free citizens. The military commander was the only elective office. This arrangement, by which almost every citizen was given experience in public affairs, educated the people so that Athens had the most intelligent citizens among the ancient states.

So it was that Greece gave to the western world the earliest and most famous example of democratic government.

The Persian Invasion

The Persians. A group of Indo-European relatives of the Greeks settled (about 600 B.C.) just north of the Persian Gulf. A brilliant leader, Cyrus, united these Persian tribes. The Persian kings succeeded in conquering the whole eastern world from Egypt to the Greek cities on the west coast of Asia Minor. Darius the Great inherited this vast empire. His rule was just, kind, and intelligent, but the people had no voice in the management of affairs. The government of Persia was in the hands of one man.

The little Greek cities on the coast of Asia Minor fell under the undemocratic rule of Persia. These cities revolted and

Athens sent twenty ships to their aid. In revenge Darius sent an army against Athens.

Marathon. In the summer of 490 B.C. the Persians sailed across the Aegean Sea and entered the Bay of Marathon. There they landed and camped on the shores of Attica behind the hills northeast of Athens. The little army of Athenian citizens had to fight a Persian army of professional soldiers who were the victors of many battles.

The Athenians were without experience in war and were facing at least twice their number of men. They did not wait for the Persians to reach Athens. They marched boldly out to a strong position overlooking the main road to the city. When the Persians tried to march along the road to Athens, the Greeks attacked and defeated them. The Persians sailed back to Asia. A swift Athenian runner carried the news of the victory to Athens twenty-six miles away. This was the first Marathon race. The Marathon races in the modern Olympic games are named for it.

Thermopylae. Ten years later the Persian army returned, coming down from the north with an immense army and a great fleet. Athens had built a powerful fleet. Sparta joined forces with the Athenians. To enter Greece proper the Persians must come through the narrow mountain Pass of Thermopylae. The Spartan king stationed himself with a little army of about five thousand men to hold the pass against the great Persian force of two hundred thousand or more. All day long the splendid Spartans held the Pass of Thermopylae against the armies of the East.

At nightfall, the Persians found a path over the mountains. They slipped around and attacked from behind. Attacked in front and rear the Spartans fought till the last man was killed. The Persian army marched on toward Athens.

The Persian fleet sailed into the Athenian harbor (the Bay

of Salamis) to fight the Greek fleet. In the crowded little harbor the Persians could not use their many ships to advantage. Their fleet was defeated. Without it they could not feed and support their large army. They returned again to the East.

Greek civilization saved. The Greeks were at last free to develop their civilization in their own way without interference from the East. The Persians would have brought with them the high civilization of the East and an enlightened but despotic rule. But the defeat of Persia enabled the Greeks to develop their idea of democracy. A free citizenship would not have developed under Persian rule.

Among the other great gifts of the Greeks which were saved to be handed on to Europe was the scientific method of thinking. The Oriental religions, which taught that the gods and not natural law controlled the world, would probably have destroyed the beginnings of scientific thinking in Greece. Greek freedom and Greek education were free to grow and spread all over the western world.

Pericles. Just after the defeat of the Persians, there came to leadership in Athens a most wonderful statesman, Pericles (460-429 B.C.). The thirty years during Pericles' leadership are sometimes called the *Golden Age*. The Persians had burned Athens. Pericles rebuilt it and made it a city of marvelous beauty.

The Importance of Greek Civilization

The Greeks came down from the north into the Greek peninsula and developed the foundation for the civilization of Europe. They were the first civilized Europeans and made important contributions to the civilization of modern times. They borrowed a great deal from the earlier civilizations of the East. But the Greeks were an unusually talented people. They brought with them Indo-European habits of government which

made the civilization of Europe very different from that of the Orient. It is fortunate that the Persians, who were of the same race as the Greeks but were Oriental in civilization, did not conquer Greece. The Greeks might never have influenced the development of western civilization as they did, if they had come under the rule of a despotic Oriental empire. In this chapter we have learned that among our inheritances from the Greeks are:

1. The use of the Phoenician alphabet, to which the Greeks added the vowels.
2. The idea that the citizens of a state have a right to take part in the government.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper write the missing word in each of the following statements.

1. A group of Indo-European tribes called the _____ wandered down from the north of the Black Sea into the land of the Aegeans.
2. The _____ became the ancestors of most of the present people of Europe.
3. The uncivilized Greeks found the cities of the Aegeans on the shores of southern _____.
4. The _____ had an oriental civilization which centered in the island of Crete.
5. The most important thing that the Greeks received from the Phoenicians was the _____.
6. The Greeks developed the earliest example of a _____ government among civilized people.
7. The defeat of the _____ in the battle of Marathon saved _____ civilization from Oriental control.
8. Greek laws laid the foundation for some modern _____.
9. Democratic _____ in Athens helped to develop an intelligent body of citizens.
10. The period of Pericles' leadership in Athens is called the _____ _____.

Suggested Activities

1. On the map used in chapters II and III indicate the location of the Danube River, Greece, the Aegean Sea, Athens, Sparta, the Pass of Thermopylae, the Plain of Marathon, and Persia.

2. Read about the Persians and prepare to report to the class on "How Persia Became the Greatest Empire in the Oriental World." Information may be found in Hodgdon's, *The Enchanted Past,* chapter V.

3. Find out how the Spartans and Athenians differed in their ideas about government and training for citizenship in the day of Pericles.

References: Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* pages 36-37, 51-52; Davis' *Day in Old Athens;* Snedeker's *Theras and His Town;* Perkins' *The Spartan Twins.*

CHAPTER V

THE INFLUENCE OF GREEK CIVILIZATION

The central idea. In this chapter we shall see how the Greeks adopted and improved the achievements of the Egyptians and other ancient peoples, how the genius of their artists and thinkers left us a priceless inheritance, and how Greek civilization spread over all the Mediterranean world.

What the Greeks Gave to Civilization

The Greeks developed the greatest thinkers and the finest artists that the world had ever seen. In Athens we saw how the democratic government gave every citizen a chance to use his intelligence. Athens became world famous for its beauty as a city and for the genius of its citizens as thinkers and artists.

Greek art. *Sculpture.* The Greeks had become splendid artists. Their sculptors, in chiseling the figures of the winners in the Greek athletic games, had learned to make wonderful statues and reliefs in stone and bronze. They made human figures which gave an effect of such free and graceful action and which had faces so full of expression that their statues seemed almost alive.

Painting. The painters, too, made drawings of human figures more natural and lifelike than any artists had ever been able to draw before. They mastered the art of showing the thickness and roundness of a leg or arm and of giving the effect of distance in a picture. Both painters and sculptors had plenty to do in the rebuilding of Athens. They were needed to decorate the beautiful temples.

Architecture. The houses in the Greek cities, including the buildings of the government, were simply buildings made of

sundried brick. It was the Greek temples and statues that beautified Athens and gave us the pattern for our finest colonnaded buildings today. The Greek temple was an oblong building covered by a peaked roof with a triangular gable at each end. All about the building was a porch made by a line of stone columns (colonnades).

The Greeks had borrowed the form of these colonnades from the Egyptians, but they had improved them until they made the most beautiful columns ever designed. At first the columns were plain. The Egyptian architects had long before carved the top of their columns in the shape of growing flowers or palm tree tops. The Greeks, seeing the beauty of their own acanthus plant, designed columns of which the top was decorated with a double row of acanthus leaves. The Greek temples, like those on the Nile, were painted in bright tints.

The most famous of all the Athenian buildings was a temple to their goddess Athena. It was called the *Parthenon.* Around the building above the colonnades was a band of carved marble showing the people of Athens in stately religious procession. In the triangular gables at the end gleamed the heroic figures of the gods touched with bright colors. Inside the temple gleamed the great figure of Athena carved of gold and ivory.

Out in the open behind the colonnaded entrance rose an immense bronze statue of Athena, seventy feet high as it stood on its tall base. With shield and spear the goddess stood, a gracious guardian of the city, and the glittering point of her gilded spear could be seen like a shining jewel even by the sailors coming in from the sea.

On the slope at the foot of the Acropolis in Athens stood the great open-air theater built of stone. The plan of the Greek theater has continued to be used down to modern times and furnished the design of many present-day theaters. The seats

were arranged in semicircular tiers like the seats in modern theaters. The city gave each citizen money to pay admission to the plays. He looked down upon the orchestra circle where

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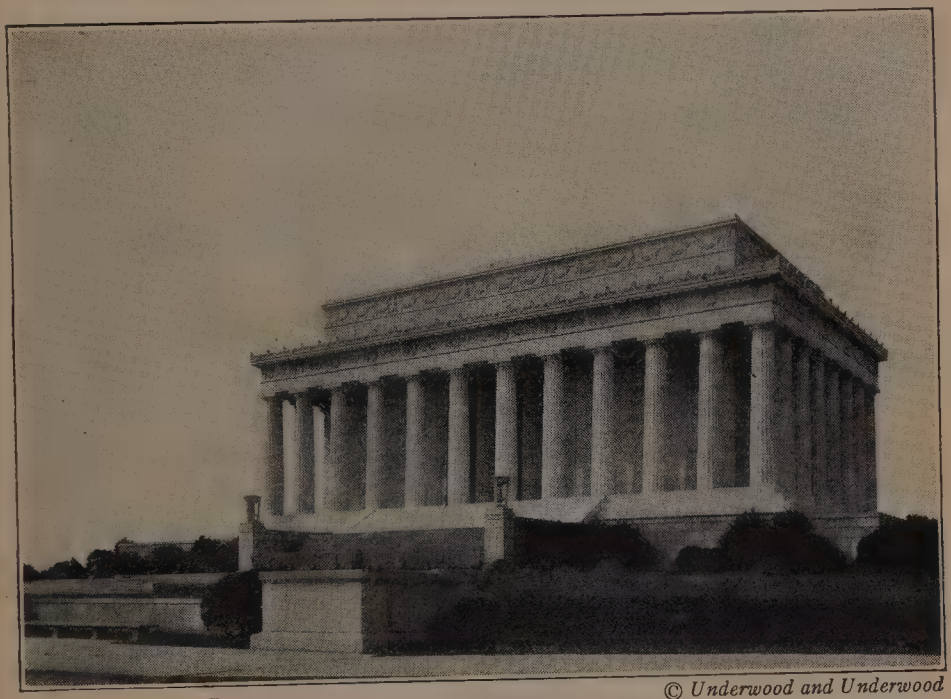
The Parthenon in Athens as it is today. This lovely temple was ruined by the explosion of some gunpowder, stored there in 1687.

the chorus sang. There he recognized his friends or neighbors or even his sons in the chorus for that day's performance.

The play would have seemed strange enough to us. There was little or no scenery, and the actors, who were always men, wore strange masks, a relic of the old days when the country folk disguised themselves as goats. The narrative was carried on mostly in song by the chorus, but this was varied by the

speeches of the actors. The Greek dramas were somewhat like our operas.

Greek literature. *The great poetic songs.* We noticed



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The Lincoln Memorial in Washington D. C. shows how modern buildings are influenced by ancient Greek architecture.

that writing grew common about 700 B.C. Then the Greeks were able to write down the beautiful songs about their heroes and the early tales (myths) about their gods. The many songs of the professional singers who sang at the ancient feasts of the kings and the nobles had finally been woven together into a connected story about the Greek wars with the city of Troy in Asia Minor.

These songs were the work of several centuries of singers. Among them was a great singer called Homer. His reputation

was so great that when the ancient songs were written (about 700 B.C.) the Greeks gave him credit for composing all of them. Later they knew that there must have been a number of authors. We still give Homer credit for the Iliad, the story of the Greek attack upon Troy, and the Odyssey, the tale of the wanderings of the hero Odysseus as he returned from Troy. In these great poems we have the *oldest literature born in Europe*.

Homer's Iliad is still thought to be the world's greatest epic poem. It put into lasting form the thoughts of the early Greeks about gods and men. Like the Hebrew Bible, the Homeric songs were a collection of tales giving the history and the religious ideas of the race. They were loved by the whole race of Greeks. The people did not have a common government but these songs gave them a common literature. Later the Greeks wrote great poetry to be sung to the music of the lyre (lyric poetry).

Drama. At the same time, from the songs sung by the country folk at their feasts, arose a sort of musical play or drama such as was played in the theater at Athens. Beginning as a chorus of the country peasants it grew into a real play in which there were two or three actors. With the help of their chorus they acted out marvelous plays about the stories of the gods, the great Greek victories, and the hopes and thoughts of the people. Great contests were staged in which the talented authors of the time presented their plays before all the citizens in competition for a prize.

Prose writing. After the Greeks had written their greatest poetry and plays they began writing prose. The first great writer of Greek prose was Herodotus. He wrote a history of the world in which facts were woven in with the great myths about the gods. Many of the famous prose writers were the

orators in the great lawmaking assemblies who wrote their speeches before they gave them. The interest of the Athenians in government and public affairs showed in the writings of their teachers and thinkers as well as of their statesmen. One of their most famous teachers, Plato, wrote *The Republic,* a treatise on government, which is still read as a literary masterpiece.

Greek music. In the music which accompanied the choruses of the plays we have the beginnings of our modern orchestras. A system of writing musical notes, which did for music what the alphabet did for literature, had already been used in Assyria. The Greeks began to use a similar system.

The flute had been brought from Egypt to Crete in early times. The Greeks found it when they conquered Crete. They made great use of the lyre, a harp-like instrument at first having four strings. Later it had eight strings and became very popular. Music was written for the lyre alone and the famous lyric poems we mentioned were written to its music. Music was considered so important that it was taught in the schools along with reading and writing.

Science and philosophy. *Influence of the East.* The literature and art of the Greeks showed that they were brilliant and original thinkers. Before the coming of the Persians their cities in Asia Minor had led the way in overturning the beliefs of older times, particularly about the world and its control by the gods. Their leadership in commerce and industry kept the Asiatic Greeks in close touch with Egypt and the Phoenician cities. From them the Greeks had learned the beginnings of mathematics and astronomy.

Scientific thinking. A Greek from Asia Minor who had traveled widely learned that eclipses of the sun came at regular times. Using the Babylonian records of eclipses he succeeded in predicting an eclipse as the Babylonians had done before

him. That made him famous but it did something still more important: it started his keen Greek mind to working.

Up to that time eclipses and other strange things that happened in the skies were thought to be caused by some angry god. This Greek thinker now declared that the stars and the moon and the sun moved according to fixed natural laws. This was one of the greatest steps in human thinking. It was the *beginning of scientific thinking.*

Do you see how the Greeks gave the method of scientific thinking to the world? They became the *earliest scientists* because they tried to find out what the natural laws were that, in the beginning, had brought the world into being and still controlled it. These thinkers were called *philosophers.* The Greek thinkers were the first to discover that the earth was round and moved in space.

Schools spread science. The truths that the Greek philosophers began to discover were at first unknown in the old-fashioned private schools of Greece. The bright Athenian boy who had finished his music, reading, and writing at such a school was concerned with little more than the winning of a victory in the Olympic games or a fine appearance when parading with the crack cavalry of Athens.

But there began to appear a class of new private teachers who wandered from city to city giving lectures. These clever teachers saw how important public speaking was in the large citizen juries. They taught public speaking with great success. They really founded the study of language. They gave rise to the *first successful writing of Greek prose* because they insisted that a good speech must be written out before it could be given. In addition they taught mathematics and astronomy.

Many an Athenian boy probably annoyed his father by demanding money to pay for a course of lectures given by one

of these new teachers. For the first time a chance for higher education was open to the Greek schoolboy. The young men of Athens began at last to learn a little science.

Still even the average Athenian knew almost nothing about science. This gave him great trouble in measuring time. He still called the middle of the forenoon the "time of the full market." The Egyptian shadow clock in the market place had not yet led him to speak of the hours of the day by number, as the Egyptians had been doing for a thousand years. The time allowed for a citizen's speech before the law court was measured by allowing water to run out of a jar with a small hole in it.

Scientific medicine. But the thinkers went on discovering new natural laws. They began the use of medicine as a remedy for sickness. The Greek doctors objected to the old belief that disease was caused by evil demons and tried to *find the natural causes for sickness.* To do this they tried to understand the organs of the body. They read in the Egyptian medical books that the brain controlled the limbs. Then the Greeks discovered that the brain was the organ of thought. But they never discovered about human nerves and the circulation of the blood.

Geography and history. A Greek from Asia Minor made the first map of the known world. The maps of the Egyptians showed only a particular region. Another Greek geographer from the cities in Asia Minor wrote the first geography of the world. This same man put together a history made up of the mythical tales of early Greece and the stories of the past which he had heard in the Orient. This was the first history of the early world since the one written by the Hebrews.

Travel was difficult in those days. There were no passenger ships on the seas. There was no way of travel by land except

in rough carts or wagons. Road and bridge building was not yet very old in the East and there was not yet a single paved road in all Europe. The traveler went on foot or rode his horse over very bad roads. People did not travel for pleasure, but

Territories Occupied by Greek City States Are Shown in Black

they traveled much more than ever before. The scientists traveled enough to encounter the cold of the north and the warmth of the south and were puzzled by the change in temperature.

Their history was still a queer mixture of truth and mythical tales. The great Athenian historian, Herodotus, came back from his long journeys with much information about Egypt and other eastern countries. He made a map showing that the Red Sea connected with the Indian Ocean.

Just at the close of Pericles' life (the Golden Age) Herodotus published his great history of the world so that all Greeks should know of the great leadership of Athens and of the debt

they owed the Athenians for saving them from the Persians. But he did not try to explain history as the result of natural happenings. He still believed that everything happened according to the will of the gods.

Physical training. *Greek games.* Another of our fine inheritances from the Greeks can be seen in our school stadiums and athletic fields and in the athletic contests which delight the hearts and train the bodies of modern schoolboys and girls. The early Greeks held athletic games to honor the burial of their heroes. Later they held them at regular times in honor of their gods.

Olympia, a city in southern Greece, held athletic contests at a great public celebration every four years. All the Greeks finally joined in these games. One of the earliest contests established at Olympia was a two hundred yard dash. The Greeks called this contest a *stadion,* which means six hundred Greek feet. The race course and the oval of seats built about it came to be called the *stadium.*

The chief events at the Olympic games were boxing, wrestling, running, jumping, casting the javelin, and throwing the discus. There was chariot racing and horseback racing too. The prizes to the victor were a crown of olive leaves and the admiration of all Greece. Poems were sung in his praise and statues were made of his splendid and graceful body. The man who ran the fastest might be disqualified unless he had shown the *best style* in the contest. The Greeks insisted that the victor was not necessarily the most powerful but the best developed and most graceful athlete. Games developed the perfect bodies that Greek artists put into bronze and marble statues.

Our inheritance. Today the whole world takes part in the Olympic games held in memory of the games which the ancient

Greeks celebrated at Olympia. The whole civilized world includes physical training in its systems of education. Credit for the beginning of the idea must be given to the Greeks.

How Alexander Spread Greek Civilization

Need for Greek unity. We have shown how the wonderfully gifted Greeks opened up a new world of beauty and of

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The Olympic Games. The whole world competes in the modern Olympic Games. This is one of the distance races in the Olympic Games held at Paris in 1924.

freedom. Their great weakness was that they could not unite into one strong nation. If they had been a strong nation they might have protected their civilization and extended its influence over other nations so that all the people of their time could use it and help preserve it.

Alexander the Great. Luckily there came a remarkable

man who was not a Greek but who had been educated by the greatest of Greek teachers. He did for the Greeks what they could not do for themselves. He was Alexander of Macedonia. The Macedonians were a group of Indo-European relatives of the Greeks who had followed them down into the northern part of the Greek peninsula, set up a small kingdom there, and become somewhat civilized by contact with their civilized neighbors.

When Alexander was thirteen years of age his father had brought to his court Aristotle, the most famous of all the Greek thinkers and teachers of his time. Under Aristotle, the boy learned to know and love the masterpieces of Greek literature, especially the Homeric songs. The deeds of the great Greek heroes fired his imagination and influenced his character so that he grew up believing in Greek civilization.

Alexander's leadership. Alexander's father had already won the leadership of all the Greek cities except Sparta. Alexander was only a boy of twenty when his father died, but he swiftly taught the Greeks to fear and respect his power. At the same time they learned how much he admired Greek genius. They saw him destroy a rebellious city except for one house. It was the house of a great Greek poet. Alexander made them feel that the man who so admired their genius was their natural leader. They formed a league and elected him as its leader and general.

The conquest of the East. Alexander planned to lead the united Greeks against the Persians and to make the Greek civilization the leading civilization of the whole Mediterranean world. Greek democracy and scientific thinking could not live as long as the despotic Persian ruler was the greatest ruler in the world.

Alexander led a great army into Asia Minor where he de-

feated the Persian king. He spent twelve years in Asia and carried Greek civilization into the very heart of the continent. He marched across to the borders of India. At important points along his line of march he founded Greek cities bearing his name and set up kingdoms, which were to be the centers of Greek influence, on the very frontiers of India. At the height of his career he died in 323 B.C.

The spread of Greek civilization. *Alexander's influence.* Greek art entered India and influenced the development of art in India. The Greek works of art from the cities and kingdoms that Alexander set up spread eastward even to China and contributed to the later art of China and Japan.

Alexander sent an exploring party up the Nile into Egypt to discover the causes of the yearly overflow of the river. He sent another party to the shore of the Caspian Sea to build a fleet and sail around the sea. The northern end of the sea was unknown. He encouraged the Greeks to come over to settle in the new cities of the East.

Spread of Greek language. Alexander's conquests put Asia and Egypt in the hands of Macedonian rulers who were Greek in civilization. Their language was in most cases the Greek language of Athens. The people of the East found the affairs of government carried on in the Greek language. They carried on business with many Greek merchants and read many Greek books. Athenian Greek became the daily language of the great cities and of the vast world stretching from the tip of Italy eastward on both sides of the Mediterranean far into Asia.

Life in Alexander's new cities. Life in the cities was more comfortable than ever before. The Greeks who went to live in Africa and in Asia learned to build beautiful houses of stone and fill them with carpets, hangings, and artistic furniture. Alexander's new cities were laid out with streets at right angles

and the buildings in rectangular blocks. Under their paved streets ran drainage pipes or canals, the forerunners of our modern sewers and water systems.

In Pericles' time the great state buildings were the temples. Now the Asiatic-Greek cities began to build fine government buildings in the center of the city in a wide market square surrounded by long colonnades. The assembly and the council no longer sat in the open air. They met in a handsome building containing an auditorium with seats arranged like a theater. Each city also had gymnasiums and baths, a race track, a theater, and beautiful temples.

The most wonderful of all these cities, where the civilization of the Greeks mixed with the civilization of the East, was Alexandria in Egypt. It became the city where the greatest trade and the greatest learning of the Mediterranean world was to be found. The ships at its docks unloaded bars of tin from the British Isles, bolts of silk from China, and rolls of cotton goods from India. Government banks were formed because its trade was so great.

But the most famous thing in Alexandria was its university. It was the first school for the study of science ever set up and supported by a government. It was called the Royal Museum for the Muses who were the Greek goddesses of learning and art. There the greatest group of scientists in the ancient world lived and worked together. The rulers provided a place for them to live and paid their salaries. In the wonderful library, the lecture halls, and the laboratories of the Museum they wrote the best books on science that were written for nearly two thousand years. Some of them, such as Euclid's Geometry, are still used for schoolbooks today.

The decline of Greece. But what had happened to the Greek states at home in Greece? Their citizens had gone east

as soldiers, sailors, or scholars till in many Greek cities only a few discouraged citizens were left. After the victories of Alexander, the Greek cities at home lost their leadership in trade and their prosperity. They were ready to fall easy prey before the new military power developing in the west—the Romans in Italy.

Our Inheritance from the Greeks

Because the Greeks became the leading manufacturing and commercial people of their time, they circled the shores of the Black and Mediterranean Seas with their trading cities. Later, Alexander the Great founded many new Greek cities in the Orient extending from the borders of India to the shores of North Africa. The democratic city governments, the beautiful buildings, the graceful statues, and the great literature of Greece appeared in all these cities.

The European peoples on the Mediterranean coasts were influenced by Greek civilization and helped to hand it on to us. In addition to an improved alphabet and the idea of democracy in government, we have inherited from the Greeks:

1. Statues and sculptured reliefs that serve as examples to modern artists.

2. Buildings from which have developed the style of our colonnaded public buildings, our theaters, and our stadiums.

3. Some of the world's greatest literature—the Homeric songs, the lyric poetry, and the Greek plays—which greatly influenced the development of modern literature.

4. The beginnings of our modern orchestras and the system of writing music in notes.

5. The scientists' habit of looking for natural causes. This has led to great developments in science.

6. An appreciation of the value of physical training in education.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On the left side of a separate sheet of paper write the 12 names below. Opposite each of these names write the number of the statement which belongs with the name.

Athena	1. The greatest Greek poet
Homer	2. One of the world's most perfect buildings
Pericles	3. A great Greek historian
Plato	4. A Greek goddess
Herodotus	5. A great Athenian statesman
Aristotle	6. A philosopher who wrote about Greek democracy
Alexander	7. An ancient university
Parthenon	8. The greatest of epic poems
Odyssey	9. The man who spread Greek civilization
Royal Museum	10. The city where the Olympic games were held
Alexandria	11. A philosopher, the teacher of Alexander
Olympia	12. A center of Greek and Oriental civilization in Egypt.

Suggested Activities

1. On the outline map used in your study of chapters II to IV indicate the location of Olympia and of Alexandria.

2. Read some of the famous Greek stories which are commonly found in our libraries today, such as *Aesop's Fables,* the stories of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey,* and the great Greek myths about their gods and goddesses. For Greek myths see Nathaniel Hawthorne's *Wonder-Book* and *Tanglewood Tales.*

3. Make a picture collection of modern buildings which show the influence of ancient Greek architecture. It will help to read about Greek buildings and study pictures of them in *Our Ancestors in Europe* by Hall, and *A Day in Old Athens* by Davis.

4. Find out how the Olympic Games were celebrated in Greece. Read "The Boy of Galatia" and "The Olympic Games" in *Stories of Greece and Rome* Retold from St. Nicholas.

CHAPTER VI

THE SPREAD OF CIVILIZATION INTO WESTERN EUROPE

The central idea. This chapter will acquaint us with the Romans who spread the learning of the ancient East and of Greece into western Europe, and who have contributed more to the development of the government and law of modern times than any other one people.

How Rome Became the Leading City in the Mediterranean World

Italy. The most important land in the western Mediterranean world in early times was Italy. The Italian peninsula extends out into the sea for almost six hundred miles, that is, it is almost half again as long as the peninsula of Florida.

A look at the map helps us to understand why the early Romans were farmers and not shepherds and seamen like the early Greeks. The coast of Italy is not cut up by rivers and bays enough to give her the wealth of good harbors which invite a people to begin commerce early. Nor are the wide and fertile plains and forest covered slopes of the peninsula cut up by a tangle of mountains like those of Greece. Because of Italy's geography it is not surprising then that the Romans were a long time in developing seamanship and trade. They did not need to go to sea. They could stay at home and farm.

The earliest people in Italy moved down from their homes on the lakes of Switzerland. In the valley of the Po River near Venice they built their homes out over the swamps on piles driven into the mud bottoms just as they had been used to doing over the Swiss lakes. They were a farming people but they traded enough with the ships from the East to learn the

use of bronze weapons. These were the people that the Italians found when they came down from the north.

The coming of the Italians. Probably not long after the Greeks had pushed down into the Greek peninsula (about 2000 B.C.) other tribes of Indo-Europeans were moving westward and down into Italy. The Italians were the most important of these tribes. They finally settled in the central and southern part of Italy. One of these Italian tribes, the Latins, settled (about 1000 B.C.) at the mouth of the Tiber River in a space about the size of one of our counties. They called the territory Latium. They often went up the river to trade at a ragged little village across the border, called Rome.

Rome supreme in Italy. Rome grew and presently became a city kingdom (about 750 B.C.) with a Latin population. The Romans were fine soldiers and before long made the other Latin cities accept their city as the head of a league of all the Latin city-states. With this beginning, in three and a quarter centuries (599-275 B.C.) the Romans won for themselves the control of the whole Italian peninsula. This meant that they conquered the other Italian tribes and the civilized Greek cities which had long ruled southern Italy and the island of Sicily.

All Italy was dotted with communities of Roman citizens. About one-sixth of the land of Italy was owned by citizens of Rome. This was because her growing number of citizens needed land and because Rome made it a rule to sprinkle Roman colonies through the territories her soldiers had conquered. The continual spread of the farmers of Rome throughout Italy helped to spread Roman customs and Roman ideas and thus kept the conquered people under Rome's control.

Rome, the leading power in the west. While the Romans were busy conquering Italy they paid little attention to trade or commerce. They were farmers and soldiers. But there was

another good reason why they did not venture out on the sea. The Phoenician city of Carthage on the north coast of Africa, just across from Italy, was the commercial queen of the western Mediterranean. Carthaginian warships promptly attacked any rival ships caught trading there.

The Romans began carrying on trade with the conquered Greek cities in southern Italy. Greek merchants from these cities were given Roman protection when they traded in Rome. Greek silver money appeared in greater quantities than ever before in Rome, and the Romans began to coin silver money of their own. Copper coins were no longer sufficient for Roman business. Rome began to feel the influence of money and developed a moneyed class, mostly merchants. There could not be many rich manufacturers, for Rome never became an industrial city.

The growth of Roman trade on the sea brought war with Carthage, the great Phoenician city in Africa. The Romans defeated Carthage, made her a subject city, and finally destroyed the city entirely. By her defeat of Carthage, Rome made herself (by 201 B.C.) the leading power in the western Mediterranean.

Rome, the leader of the civilized world. The Romans were finally free to use their wonderful army to spread Roman influence over Greece and western Asia. The Macedonians had given help to Carthage against Rome. The Romans turned on Macedonia. The Macedonian army was defeated and the ancient homeland of Alexander the Great became a subject state under Rome.

At first the Greeks were friendly allies of the Romans, but before long the weak cities of Greece rashly brought on war with Rome. Then Greek liberty came to an end. The people whose glorious achievement in civilization the world still ad-

mires were reduced to the position of Roman vassals (146 B.C.).

The conflict with Macedonia led Rome into war with the King of Syria, who was the most powerful ruler in western Asia. The west led by the Romans finally overthrew the east led by this ruler. Within twelve years (200-189 B.C.) Roman armies had reduced Macedonia and Syria to the condition of vassal states. About twenty years later, Egypt, too, became a vassal of Rome (168 B.C.). Thus, a little more than a century and a half before Christ was born, Rome was politically the leading nation in the civilized world.

Roman civilization in western Europe. Within the next hundred years the Romans conquered western Europe and spread civilization to the people who later settled America. The greatest military leader and statesman that Rome ever had was Julius Caesar. He undertook to bring under Roman control the barbarian people who lived in western Europe. He added an immense territory to the Roman Empire, corresponding roughly to the lands of present-day France and Belgium, and he filled the plundering tribes across the boundaries with fear and respect for the Roman armies. To American boys and girls the most interesting of all the Roman conquests is that of Britain, because the foundation for the civilization of the United States was laid by the English.

For a long time Rome had been importing tin from Britain. This metal was so much in demand that it was highly desirable to control the land where it was mined. Then, too, Caesar was angry because his foes, the Gauls, as the uncivilized people of France and Belgium were called, so often secured the help of the Britons and sometimes escaped into Britain across the rough English Channel. To prevent this, Caesar crossed with his army into Britain. He made the Britons respect Roman

power enough so that they stopped helping the Gauls. But it took almost a hundred years to conquer these ancient ancestors of the present-day Scotch and Irish.

Nearly a century later the Romans came again to Britain. At that time they conquered all but the northern part of the

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The ancient Roman Bath of Caracalla. People lounged and visited here. The bathing pool beyond the pillars in the background was much like our indoor swimming pools.

island. They ruled the country for nearly three hundred years. They cut down the forests and drained the marshes; they taught the Britons new ways of tilling the soil. They built many cities, each of which became a center of Roman life and industry. The officers and garrisons of Rome and the families of the merchants and traders came to live in these cities. They built splendid Roman houses, baths, and amphitheaters. The ruins of some of these baths and parts of the Roman walls

about the cities of London, York, and Lincoln are still standing.

Some of the best roads in England today were built long ago by the Romans. Four of these Roman roads began at London and led out to different parts of the island. So it was that far-

The shaded portion on this map represents the Roman Empire at its greatest extent, 395 B.C.

away Britain was brought under the influence of the civilization that the conquering Romans were spreading all over western Europe.

The extent of the Roman Empire. The little city of Rome on the Tiber became the capital of an empire that included almost all the known world. On the east the Euphrates River was the frontier. Asia Minor and the coast of Phoenicia and of Palestine were Roman territories. All northern Africa belonged to Rome. In Europe the empire included Italy, Greece, Spain, France (Gaul), England (Britain), and parts of Ger-

many, Austria-Hungary, and the Balkan states. Rome ruled a territory about as large as the United States and governed just about as many people.

How the Romans Developed a Great System of Government and Law

The problem of government. Rome had won the control of the civilized world in a little over three generations. There were still old men living who had talked with the veterans of the first war with Carthage. The grandsons of the men who had won for Rome the leadership of the West filled the armies that won her the leadership of the East as well. The Romans showed wonderful ability in carrying on their great wars. Then they faced the problem of working out a successful government and a system of laws for the widest empire that the world had ever seen. In working out that plan they proved that they had the greatest ability at organization and the finest legal minds in the ancient world.

Early government. When Rome found herself ruler of the whole Mediterranean world, she still had the government which had been set up by her Latin citizens when they turned their city kingdom into a city republic (about 500 B.C.). On getting rid of their kings they had agreed that the assembly of weapon-bearing men should elect from among the nobles two officials called consuls. Both consuls were to have the same power and to serve for a year only. They had a tribal council of elders which had become a senate, finally made up of nobles only.

The assembly of the weapon-bearing men of the tribe had grown into an assembly of country peasants and city workmen who were citizens. There was a large group of non-citizens who had no part in the government. This group consisted of slaves and foreigners, in fact any one not born or expressly

made a citizen. The Senate, made up of hereditary nobles, really controlled the government.

Growth of democracy. *The Tribunes.* The Romans, like the Greeks, had the Indo-European idea that the people had a right to a share in their government. The early Roman citizens, too, had struggled to keep their kings and the nobles from taking this right away from them. In Rome, as in the Greek cities, the nobles could not carry on the wars without the help of the peasants as soldiers.

The Roman Senate finally agreed to give the people a larger share in the government by allowing them in their own assembly to elect a group of new officials called *tribunes.* The tribunes had the right to veto the action of any officer of the government—even of the consuls themselves. When any citizen was treated unjustly by an officer he had only to appeal to the tribunes to stop the unjust action. A tribune could even save a citizen from a sentence of death.

But there were many privileges which the tribunes could not secure for the people; such as the right to use the public pastures, to be elected as consul, to become a senator, or to marry a noble's daughter. Many rights were secured without fighting, civil war, or bloodshed during the first two centuries following the setting up of the City Republic by the Latin citizens (about 500-300 B.C.).

Written law. The people insisted that existing laws be in writing in order that they might know by what laws they were being judged. About fifty years after the establishment of the Republic, the earliest Roman laws were put in writing and engraved upon twelve tablets of bronze (450 B.C.).

Lawmaking assemblies. At the same time the people demanded the right to share in the making of new laws. Gradually the old peasant assembly gave way to lawmaking bodies

which both nobles and common people attended and where one man's vote was as good as another. There were two such important lawmaking bodies in Rome.

Right to hold office. The people gradually gained new powers and rights. Finally new laws were passed which gave a citizen the right to hold any office. In the end Roman citizens elected their own neighbors as censors, treasury officers (quaestors), judges (praetors), and at last even as consuls. Finally they saw men of the people sitting in the Senate.

Growth of the power of the Senate. The Roman citizens had developed a government in which the people had great power. Now the people put the real power in the hands of the Senate. When the right to hold the high government offices was given to the common people, the three hundred members of the Senate who held office for life were all nobles. The people passed a new law which made any man who had held public office eligible to sit in the Senate. This law stated that when the list of senators was made out the preference should be given to men who had formerly held public office. In this way the people made the Senate a large committee of experienced statesmen guiding and controlling the state. At the same time, since the plain citizens could hold public office, many of them became senators.

Influence over the consuls. The First Consul who presided over the Senate was elected for one year only. The senators were men of much wider experience than either of the consuls because many of them had been consuls or held other public offices and had, as life members of the Senate, dealt with public questions for years. The result was that the consul found himself listening to the senators' advice instead of telling them of his own plans and of the laws he wanted passed. The consul

became a sort of minister carrying on the government according to the instructions of the Senate.

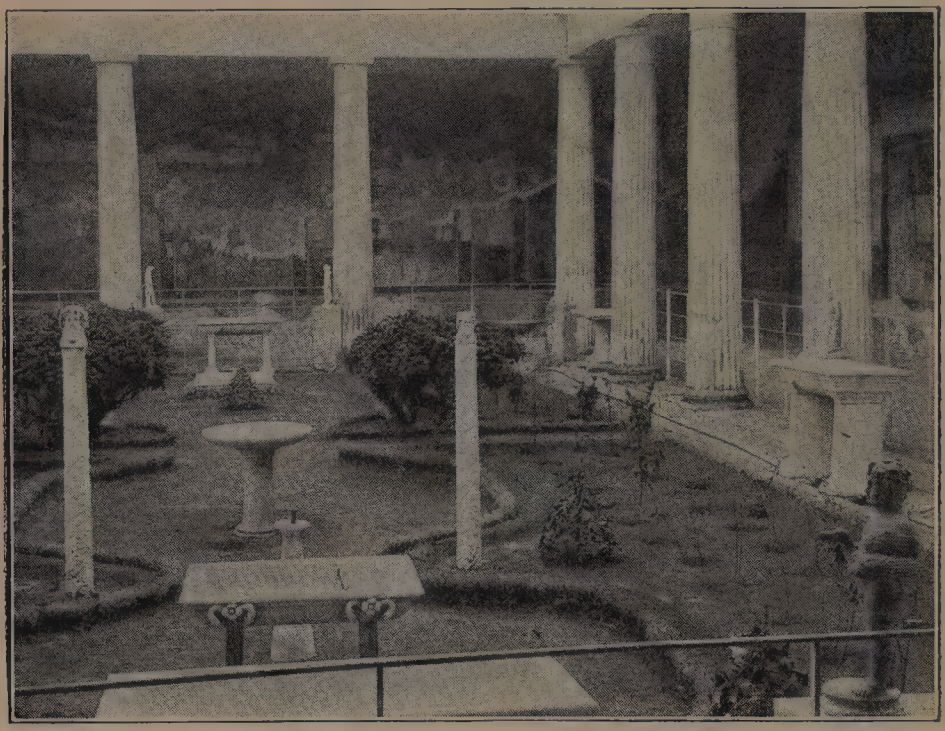
Influence over lawmaking. Through their influence on the officers of the government the Senate developed an influence on the making of laws by the popular assemblies. The assemblies had the right to pass laws but a new law had to be proposed by some official. The officials developed the habit of discussing with the senators every law to be brought up in the assemblies for adoption. The tribunes could veto the operation of any law. As a result they were given a seat in the Senate and so added to the influence of the senators.

The people did not object to this growth of the Senate's power. By far the greater number of the Roman citizens lived too far from the city to come up to Rome and vote. The small minority living in Rome who went to the assemblies to vote, were familiar with the faces of the senators. They recognized the wisdom, experience, and strong feeling of patriotism of these old statesmen. Standing at the open door of the Senate hall they had heard many a gray-haired ex-consul's eloquent voice ringing through the Forum in defense of some patriotic measure.

Feeling their own ignorance of public affairs, the Roman citizens were willing enough that important public questions should be settled by the senators. They allowed the Senate to develop into the greatest council of rulers which ever grew up in the ancient world, or perhaps in any age. It was the Senate that made Rome the conqueror of the ancient world.

Failure of the Roman government. *Corrupt government in the provinces.* Imitating the example of the Persian Empire, the Romans organized most of their conquered lands as provinces. The people of a province were not allowed to have an

army but they were obliged to pay taxes and to accept the uncontrolled rule of a Roman official who was the governor of the province. The Senate made wise enough regulations for the government of each new province. But they made no provision for forcing the governor to obey these regulations.



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The wealthy Roman's house was built around a garden court. In these gardens were beautiful statues and fountain basins. This is the house of a wealthy citizen living at Pompeii, Italy, in 79 A.D.

The provincial governor, with unlimited power, found himself far from home with the Roman troops at his elbow waiting his command. He had complete control of all the taxes of the province, and he could take what he needed from its people to support his troops and his government. He usually held office

for a single year and was generally without experience in governing a province. Often he was eager to gain a fortune in his short term of office. In such a case the government of the province became merely a system of robbing the conquered people. The Senate soon found it necessary to pass laws to punish such governors but they did not succeed in improving matters much.

Corrupt government in Rome. At home the senators found themselves facing many new problems. The taxes from the provinces poured into the treasury of the Republic. Roman citizens were no longer required to pay taxes. The governors and other Romans who had made themselves rich in the provinces returned to Rome to spend their riches. A wealthy class grew up whose ability to buy turned the mouth of the Tiber River white with the sails of ships bound for the docks of Rome.

The merchants who grew rich on this trade added themselves to the wealthy class. People began to build fine houses and to live lazy and luxurious lives. The old simple, pure, and industrious life of the Roman family disappeared. Divorce became common. Roman power kept on growing without the patriotic and sturdy citizens and the wise, strong statesmen who are needed to control a great state.

The common people felt the influence of Rome's swift conquest of the world in a different way. The peasant soldier came home from the long wars far away on the frontiers of the empire. Perhaps his little farm had been sold by his impoverished family to round out the park of some rich merchant's country place. Perhaps he found the monotonous round of the small farm too dull after his exciting years in foreign cities. The capital of the empire was the richest and the most exciting city in the world.

Many of the poor and discontented farmers moved to the city where the candidates for public office gave food to the poor and furnished free entertainment; such as chariot races, boxing matches, and bloody shows in which men and beasts

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The Appian Way in the time of Augustus Caesar, the first Roman Emperor. People of all classes thronged to the wonderful city of Rome.

fought to kill. The crowds of poor citizens in Rome grew into a city mob who sold their votes for free food, free housing, and free amusement. It was to Roman citizens like these that the officials of the new world empire appealed in elections.

The soldier whose land had been taken away wanted it back. All the poor hated the great landowners and the rich who were enjoying the results of the wars which had turned the peasant citizen into a landless poor man. These people wanted a leader who would give them back their land and their lost prosperity.

But the Roman mob which attended the shows and the bread line was likely to vote for the man who gave the most wonderful shows and the richest gifts.

Rome under one-man rule. *The end of the Republic.* The Senate had completely failed to reshape the Roman Republic and organize a workable government for the vast empire. An effective government was organized by a man named Julius Caesar.

Caesar was elected as consul of the Republic. The Senate and the lawmaking assemblies carried out his reforms because he marched into Rome at the head of the army, which had defeated the Gauls. He began far-reaching reforms of the Roman government. He was in fact its first emperor. But Caesar lived only five years (49-44 B.C.) after he had made himself the master of the Republic and he did not destroy the form of the city-republic. However, Caesar's successors became emperors in name as well as in fact. Thus they brought the Republic to an end and established the *Roman Empire.*

The organization of the Roman Empire. The emperors of Rome gave the world the most wonderfully organized government up to that time. It showed civilization how to govern on a large scale and still keep in force the European idea that the citizen has a right to some part in the government.

The Empire as a whole was still organized in provinces which steadily increased in number. By far the large majority of the people lived in the cities and towns. Such a city and its outlying communities formed a city-state like those which we found among the Greeks. Each city was given the right to elect its own governing officials and to carry on its own local affairs. Therefore, the people still took an interest in local affairs and took part in lively elections for local public offices. At the same time each city was under the control of the governor of the

province. The governor was responsible to the emperor's government at Rome.

Justice for all the people. Under the Empire all the people were given fairly equal rights and equal justice. All the people paid taxes of much the same kind into the same treasury, for the tax collectors of the government at Rome now collected all the taxes. Citizenship was given to the people of the provinces and to the people of Italy, as well as to the people who lived in the capital city. Still more important, all the people in the Empire were controlled by the same laws, which treated all as the subjects of the same great state.

Roman law. The lawyers of Rome under the emperors had gifted legal minds. They broadened the narrow city law of Rome to meet the needs of the whole Mediterranean world. They laid the foundation of a vast imperial code of laws, the greatest work of Roman genius.

In spirit these laws were most fair, just, and humane. They laid down the principle that an accused person must be held innocent until proved guilty by the evidence. This is still one of the most important principles of modern law. They protected wives and children from the cruelty of the father of the house, who in earlier centuries had a legal right to treat his family like slaves. Even slaves now had the protection of the law. A master could no longer put his slave to death if he chose. At the same time the earlier laws, developed by the older city-states conquered by Rome, were not interfered with where they did not conflict with the laws and interests of the Roman Empire.

The Roman law became the basis for the present laws of France, Spain, and Italy and has influenced the laws of the whole civilized world. Roman government and Roman law were the great gifts of the Roman people to civilization.

Roman Influence on European Civilization

The little city of Rome conquered all the civilized peoples of its time and brought under its control all of western Europe, including what is now England. The Romans were influenced by the mixed Greek and Oriental civilization in the cities that circled the shores of the Mediterranean. The efficient Romans adopted as the basis of their civilization the learning, the beautiful buildings, and the living conveniences which they found in these cities.

When the Romans took control of western Europe they scattered garrison towns all over what are now the countries of Spain, France, and England. The soldiers, merchants, and government officials of Rome lived in these towns much as they were used to living in Italy. The influence of these towns helped to pass on the gifts of Greece and the Orient to our barbarian ancestors in Europe.

But the Romans made some original contributions to the civilization which they were spreading into western Europe. Their greatest achievements were their systems of government and law. Under the Empire they showed their genius for governing by working out a very successful relation between the central government and the distant provinces and cities. They developed a system of laws by which the millions of inhabitants of a great empire might all receive the same justice. The Roman method of organizing its government and the Roman system of law have influenced the organization and the laws of most modern governments.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper write the best ending for each of the statements below.

1. The geography of Italy led the early Romans to become chiefly
   fishermen. traders. farmers.
2. The Italians belonged to the same Indo-European parent people as the
   Greeks. Hebrews. Phoenicians.
3. By the time Rome became a city kingdom its population was mostly
   Indo-Europeans. Latins. Etruscans.
4. Through trade with southern Italy the Romans learned a great deal from
   the Greeks. other Italians. the Phoenicians.
5. The beginnings of Roman commerce led to a war that destroyed the power of
   Alexandria. Athens. Carthage.
6. Rome had conquered all the civilized world around the Mediterranean Sea by
   750 B.C. 201 B.C. 168 B. C.
7. The man whose conquests extended Roman control and civilization into western Europe was
   Romulus. Tiberius Gracchus. Julius Caesar.
8. The uncivilized people of Britain and Gaul were civilized chiefly through the influence of the Roman
   garrison towns. schools. Senate.
9. One great gift which the Romans gave to future peoples was the plan of organization of their
   army. government. church.
10. The principle that an accused person must be held innocent until proved guilty was originated by the
   Egyptians. Romans. Greeks.

Suggested Activities

1. Write a paragraph on *How the City of Rome Began.* Read Van Loon's *The Story of Mankind,* pages 91 to 97. Study the drawing on page 92.

2. Find out how the growth of slavery following the wars of conquest affected the free citizens of Rome.

References: Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* page 113; Hodgdon's *The Enchanted Past,* pages 196-197.

3. Find out what Roman ships were like. "Battleships and Sea Fights of the Ancients" in *Stories of Greece and Rome* Retold from St. Nicholas will tell you.

4. Prepare to tell the class about life in the part of the Roman Empire which is now France. Read Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* pages 118-121 or Lamprey's, *Children of Ancient Gaul.*

CHAPTER VII

THE INFLUENCE OF ROMAN CIVILIZATION

The central idea. In this chapter we shall find out how the Romans borrowed a great part of their civilization from the people whom they conquered, how the Roman Empire came to an end, and how the ancestors of modern Europeans overthrew the government of Rome but were in turn greatly influenced by Roman civilization.

What the Romans Gave to Civilization

The characteristics that made the Romans great. When the Romans began their conquest of the world they had no great civilization to give the peoples that they conquered. But the Romans had certain characteristics that both the people of the Orient and the brilliant, independent Greeks lacked. They knew how to obey authority; they were extremely practical; they were splendid organizers. They had a remarkable ability for applying sober, practical judgment to every problem they met.

In the Roman family the children were, before all else, obedient and respectful to their parents. In the city of Rome the early citizens had a deep respect for the officers of the government and the government itself. The Roman armies were the best disciplined and most successful armies in the world. Under the orders of their officers they moved like splendid, well oiled machines.

We hear of a Roman father who ordered his son to be executed in the presence of the army because the young man had, in disobedience of orders, accepted single combat with an enemy and killed him. Such a people were well fitted to give

the world a splendidly organized government and a fine system of laws.

What the Romans borrowed from the Greeks. *Writing.* Back in the days of the early city-kings the Roman traders had

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Ancient utensils for weighing and measuring. The early Roman merchants adopted the Oriental devices used by the Greeks. These were found at Pompeii, Italy.

borrowed the Greek alphabet. They gradually picked out the names of familiar objects of trade in the bills handed them by the Greek merchants from southern Italy. Before long the Roman traders, too, were scribbling memoranda of their own using the Greek alphabet slightly changed to suit the Latin language.

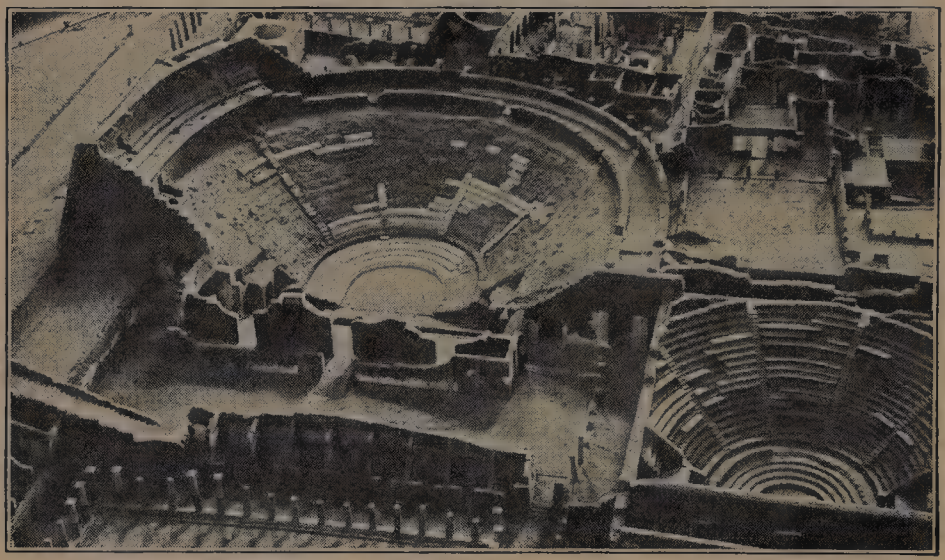
Trade. There were no Roman ships in early Rome till the Roman mechanics learned to build ships like those of the Greeks alongside the docks of Rome. The Romans learned from the Greeks to use copper and then silver coins. They gradually adopted the Oriental measures of length and bulk used by the Greeks. They bought Greek clothes, utensils, and pottery. So the name of the Phoenician garment called the *kiton* by the Greek merchants was pronounced *ktun* (ktoon) by the Latin peasants, who finally dropped the *k* and added the Latin ending *ic*. The word became *tunic* to the Romans who learned to wear the garment in place of their old skin clothes.

Living comforts. When the Romans came back from their wars in Greece and the Orient, they brought with them the mixture of Greek and Oriental civilization which had resulted from the work of Alexander the Great. The finest furniture, hangings, and carpets of the East began to decorate the houses of wealthy Romans. They put in water pipes, baths, and other sanitary conveniences. Some houses were finally fitted with tile pipes carrying hot air for warming the rooms, the earliest hot air heating yet found.

Architecture. Rome began to build public buildings like the ones in the Greek cities. They built magnificent rectangular business halls. They had a Greek theater improved by Roman awnings to keep out the hot sunshine, a curtain in front of the stage, and seats in the orchestra circle where once the Greek chorus had sung. The Senate hall was decorated with the most

beautiful creations of Greek art, and Rome was filled with Greek sculptures brought home from the wars.

Education. In early Rome there were no schools. The good old Roman custom had been for the father to instruct his own



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The ground plan of the ancient Roman theater may be seen clearly in these ruins at Pompeii, Italy.

children. Even when schools were started there was no literature for the Roman boys to learn. The Roman father's respect for law and order led him to have his son learn the *Twelve Tables* of the law and recite them to the schoolmaster. The schoolmaster often heard these recitations in the open air of a side street or a corner of the market square (the Forum). Sometimes the schoolmaster taught in a bare room of a dwelling house, for there were no schoolhouses.

Later, freed Greek slaves began to set up schools in Rome. Here and there, too, a household owned an educated Greek slave who became the tutor of the children. A Greek slave,

brought to Rome from the wars with the Greek cities in south Italy, translated the Odyssey into Latin as a schoolbook for Roman children. For the older people he translated into Latin the great dramas that we noticed being given in the theaters of Athens.

Now and then some famous Greek teacher came to lecture in Rome. Young Roman nobles in this way began to study public speaking and oratory, which they found very useful in winning public office. They all wanted to become statesmen. In fact, it became common for a young Roman of wealth and position to complete his education in Athens, where the emperors finally endowed the four most famous schools of philosophy as a government university.

Latin literature and libraries. Poets and writers of history finally appeared in Italy—who wrote the earliest Latin literature. Papyrus rolls bearing Latin works became common in Rome. The first private library was established in Rome by one of the Roman conquerors of Macedonia who brought back the Greek books of the Macedonian king. Wealthy Romans began providing library rooms in their houses.

A class of literary men arose, among whom were the finest of the Roman leaders. Caesar wrote his famous story of his Gallic wars. It was written so simply and so well that it is still studied as a Latin textbook in our schools. The literary men of Rome had libraries of Greek and Latin books and spoke Greek almost as well as Latin. They stood out in sharp contrast to the uneducated mass of the Roman people. There resulted two classes of people, educated and uneducated, a difference unknown in the early farmer republic.

In later times under the Empire, the cities provided public schools and libraries to which all were free to go. In Rome there was even a hand copied daily paper published by the

government. The plain people then had a chance to gain education also, but no amount of education enabled the Romans to make original discoveries in science. Their books about science were merely collections of the translations from the Greek and the Egyptian.

Rome, the capital city. *Conveniences of city life.* Rome in the days of the later Empire surpassed Alexandria and became the most magnificent city in the world. It had an organized police department, a fire department, a water department, and a fully organized office for the government sale of grain. Fresh water from the mountains was piped to the city. The channels, called aqueducts, were sometimes underground and sometimes supported on tall arches of masonry. Some were as much as forty miles long.

Roman roads. Wonderful Roman roads, durably paved with smooth stone like a town street, led straight over the hills and across the rivers from all the corners of the Empire. Along these roads at high speed clattered the imperial post carrying the news from the provinces. Long lines of donkeys or caravans of heavy wagons with great loads of merchandise acted as the freight trains of the Empire. Visitors to the capital, driving small horse-drawn carriages or riding horseback, traveled swiftly and comfortably over the highways to Rome. Roman roads were much better than any provided in Europe or America until the development of modern hard roads about the beginning of the nineteenth century.

Sea travel. Large and comfortable ships could take the Roman resident to Spain in a week. Lighthouses in every harbor helped to make sea travel safe. The government corn ships that sailed regularly between Roman harbors and Egypt bringing food to the capital were huge vessels carrying several thousand tons. The speed of travel and communication was

fully as high as that maintained in Europe and America a little over a century ago before the introduction of steamships.

Roman art. Rome had become the leading art center of the

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The Appian Way today. This famous old Roman road connecting Rome with southern Italy was built in the 4th century B.C.

ancient world. The old market place, called the Forum, was filled with beautiful buildings. Wonderful temples and basilicas (business halls) of Greek architecture, stone theaters, and triumphal arches were erected by the emperors. The Roman

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The Colosseum at Rome, a vast amphitheater for gladiatorial combats built in 80 A.D.

architect made much use of the Oriental arch found in Asia Minor and of the colonnades contributed by Egypt. The first fine public baths in Rome were built in the Field of Mars, an old military drill ground beside the Tiber River. All the cities of western Europe stretching from Britain across France to the Balkans imitated the great buildings of Rome. So the Romans spread the art of Greece and of the East.

The vast amphitheater for gladiatorial combats, now known

as the Colosseum, is still standing in Rome. Forty-five thousand spectators could watch the combats held there. The gladiatorial combats were single combats at first held between criminals or slaves in honor of the funeral of some great

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The start of a Roman chariot race was a thrilling spectacle

Roman. The fighters were called *gladiators* from a Latin word *gladius,* meaning *sword.* The Roman people delighted in these bloody combats. Sometimes officials arranged such shows to influence votes. At first they were held inside a temporary circle of seats. Finally great stone structures were built for them. These structures were called amphitheaters because they were formed by placing two *(amphi)* theaters face to face.

Later, combats between gladiators and wild beasts were held in the amphitheaters.

The athletic games of the Greeks were far too tame for the Roman public. The chariot race, however, did appeal to them.

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The Pantheon, a temple to all the gods, built at Rome by the Emperor Hadrian, is the best preserved of ancient Roman buildings. The concrete dome proves how skillfully the Romans used cement.

They built enormous courses surrounded by seats for vast numbers of people. These buildings they called circuses.

The Romans learned to use cement on a scale that only we moderns have learned to imitate. They built a concrete dome

for the roof of a tomb in Rome which is still standing, perfectly preserved.

The finest of all Roman art, however, appeared in the sculptured reliefs which decorated their monuments and the walls of their buildings. The resemblances to the faces of the great Romans whose likenesses appeared in such sculptures were marvelously lifelike.

Religion in the Roman Empire. *Early Roman Religion.* The Romans borrowed much of their earlier religion from the Greeks. The struggles and privations of life in those early times created superstitions and beliefs in elements that we now know to be the natural forces of the universe. Hence, in time of drought, they prayed to the God of water. As circumstances threatened them, they prayed to the sun-God, to the God of war, etc. Although the Greeks and the Romans had different names for their Gods, essentially, their characteristics were the same.

The rise of Christianity. In Chapter 3, we learned that the Hebrews were the great religious teachers of the old world. They believed there is but one God of the whole world. Now another great religious teacher was born among them. This was Jesus Christ. His parents were of Jewish descent and lived in Palestine.

Jesus taught that, above all, man should love his God, and that he should love his neighbor as he loved himself.

He preached this faith throughout Palestine. His disciples or followers went to all the lands bordering on the Mediterranean to spread the new faith. They preached Christ's teachings and made converts to Christianity. About the middle of the first century some of the Christian leaders reached Rome. They presented their ideals and beliefs to the people.

At first the authorities were amused at the spectacle of men

preaching peace and love of all mankind. The average Roman regarded such views as unfit for the rugged, warlike Roman spirit. The doctrine of Christianity appealed to the down-trodden slaves and to those Romans who were dissatisfied and discouraged. Soon the Roman officials looked upon these preachers as enemies of Rome and punished them severely.

Persecution forced the Christians to meet in secret. They dared not hold religious services in public. Nevertheless, more and more converts were made to their religion. The authorities did their utmost to suppress the spread of Christianity. The Christians were forced to live in caves and to flee to the mountains. In the City of Rome and in other parts of Italy may be found underground chambers, called catacombs, in which Christians lived and held religious services. Priests were imprisoned and the more persistent were put to death. But the fortitude with which Christians accepted imprisonment and death made numerous converts. Christians were sought out everywhere and severely punished.

Finally the authorities declared that Christians were outlaws. They hunted them as such. It was a common spectacle to see Christians thrown into the arena to be devoured by savage beasts. Crowds went to the arena to jeer, but instead they were impressed by the calm courage of the victims. The Romans began to think that there must be something of value in a religion which inspires its followers to suffer any punishment rather than to give it up. They became interested in the teachings of Christianity.

Organization of the church. In spite of the attitude of the government, the Christian churches grew in numbers and in influence. The management of the great Christian communities called for more and more ability and experience. Public

discussion and disputes in the church assemblies brought gifted men to places of position and influence. These officers of the church gradually spent more and more time on their church duties until they had no time for anything else. Presently the Christians distinguished them from the other members by calling them the *clergy*. The rest of the church members were called *laymen* or the *laity*. The old men who led the smaller country congregations were finally called *presbyters,* (a Greek word meaning "old men"). The word *priest* comes from that word.

Over the group of churches in each city a leading priest came to be called the *bishop*. In the largest city of a province these bishops sometimes had so much influence that they became archbishops or head bishops, with power to manage the bishops in all the surrounding cities of the province. You can recognize that the Christians were organizing their church on the pattern of the government of the Roman Empire. The church became a powerful organization.

Spread of Christianity. In spite of all that the Roman government did, Christianity could not be wiped out. On the contrary, it spread first to people of the middle classes, and later to those of the upper classes. Within two hundred years the majority of the people of Rome had become Christians.

The most important Roman converts to Christianity were the emperor Constantine and his wife, who embraced the new faith shortly after 300 A. D. In 313 A. D. he made Christianity the religion of the court. A few years later Christians were put on an equal footing with pagans so far as rights and privileges were concerned. Priests were now free to go to all parts of the Roman Empire. They spread their religion to the conquered provinces. The missionaries converted the barbarous tribes of

central and western Europe. Christianity went along hand in hand with Roman civilization. By the end of the fifth century, the greater part of the Roman Empire had been converted to Christianity.

Why the Roman Empire Came to an End

Forces within the Empire. *Decline of citizenship.* The great Roman Empire was about to be overrun by waves of incoming foreigners, just as Egypt had been overrun in its day. The Romans, like the Egyptians, were conquered by the decay inside the Empire more than by the foreign foes outside the Empire.

We have seen what was happening inside the great Roman state. Back in the days when Rome first became the immensely rich capital of the Mediterranean world, wealthy politicians who could afford to give great shows had taken the place of the patriotic, honest statesmen who had once sat in the Senate.

The peasants who had gone away to fight the long wars had come back to join the mob of landless poor and live in the great barracks provided by the cities. The citizens had learned to love rich and easy living. Too much wealth, political corruption, and divorce made the Romans a different people from the well disciplined families and soldierly citizens who had made Rome great. The emperors had not been able to cure these evils. In spite of their well organized government and splendid laws, they could never bring back the old patriotic, energetic citizens.

Christianity. The refusal of early Christians to obey Roman laws enforcing pagan worship in the Empire had helped to undermine respect for the emperors' authority. Men who were

honestly ambitious, earnest, or gifted were entering the service of the church rather than that of the government.

Decline of the army. The highly organized and carefully disciplined Roman legions of the army, which gained Rome the

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The Circus Maximus in Rome where the chariot races were held

leadership of the world, were now no more. Even if there had been an army made up of the peace-softened townsmen of the later Empire, the fierce, uncivilized, foreign fighting groups would have defeated it easily.

Forces outside the Empire. We have talked of our Indo-European ancestors who lived in northern Europe or came in

from the grasslands that reached across southern Russia into Asia. The Persians, the Greeks, and the Italians had all been groups of Indo-European tribes. Now another series of Indo-European tribes were pushing down from the north and threatening the civilized Mediterranean world. These were the Germans, whom Caesar had found living east of the Rhine River when he conquered the Gauls.

The Germans were a fair-haired, blue-eyed race of men of great height and splendid strength. They lived in villages, each of about a hundred families, and there was a headman over each village. Their homes were simple huts. They were more interested in their herds than in farming the fringe of fields around the village; so that they shifted their homes often. They had no writing and very little in the way of industries, manufactures, or commerce. A group of noble families furnished the leaders (dukes or sometimes kings) who governed the people.

Used to the wind and the weather of the raw north, fearless and loving to fight and to plunder, they often wandered about, followed by their wives and families in heavy wagons. A single group might include as many as fifty villages, but each village group stayed together, protected by its body of about a hundred warriors, who were the heads of the village families. Altogether these hundreds made up an army of five to six thousand men. Each hundred held together in battle led by its village headman. In spite of their lack of discipline the German armies were as terrible to meet as any in the ancient world.

When Rome was still a republic the Germans had been trying to cross the Roman frontiers. Caesar had to push them back east of the Rhine River when he conquered Gaul. The Roman armies were then still strong enough to defeat the barbarians. But Caesar's experience with the fighting qualities of

the Germans led him to do a significant thing. He hired the Germans to fight in the Roman army. His cavalry gradually came to be made up largely of barbarians. More and more under the Empire the lack of men for the armies led the emperors to hire the Germans as soldiers. Under the later emperors the armies, which the Roman officers on the frontiers led against new waves of German tribes that kept coming down from the north, contained a large number of the Germans' own relatives who had migrated earlier.

Hopeless of driving the Germans back, the emperors finally allowed them to settle within the Empire. Whole German tribes came peacefully to live in the Empire, keeping their own customs and manner of living. The practice developed of allowing the barbarians who were received into the Roman army to stay under their old German leaders and fight in their old village units. That was dangerous to Rome, indeed, because the patriotism and fine discipline of the old Roman army disappeared entirely. Only the fact that these foreigners loved to fight brought victories to Rome. German customs and manners were introduced into the Empire and the Roman army finally came to be made up almost entirely of barbarian Germans. The leaders of the German fighting units were even recognized as Roman officers. An uncivilized people were gaining control of the Roman Empire.

The fall of the Roman Empire. The German military leaders finally came to possess such power that they made and unmade emperors as they pleased. In the end, the German soldiers put aside the last of the Roman emperors and set up one of their own leaders (476 A.D.). So it was that the line of emperors ended a little over five hundred years after Caesar had made an end of the power of the Senate in the Republic of Rome. The fall of Rome was a long, slow process. It had

begun before Caesar's time with the corruption of Roman citizens and statesmen. The Germans had conquered the Empire. In their turn they had been greatly influenced by Roman civilization.

Roman Influence on Modern Times

Rome had spread civilization over all western Europe. Her language and law took permanent root. The Latin language, changed somewhat in popular speech, became the language of the German tribes who laid the foundation for the modern nations of western Europe. The French, Spanish, and Italian languages are Romance (Roman) languages. Roman law and government did not vanish with the Empire. They influenced the government and the laws of all western Europe. Roman government lived on in the organization of the Christian church which was successful largely because it modeled its organization after that of the Roman Empire. The Germans accepted Christianity and came under the influence of the church which did much to preserve the influence of Rome. The Roman Empire, even though it had fallen, had carried out the great work of spreading civilization westward into uncivilized Europe.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper answer each of the following questions with *yes* or *no*.

1. Did the Romans develop their literature, art, and education on a foundation borrowed from the Greeks?
2. Did the Romans make many original discoveries in science?
3. Did cities all over Europe imitate the beautiful buildings of Rome?
4. Did the Romans invent the round arch which their architects used so much?
5. Was the basilica originally a church building?
6. Was the dome of the Pantheon made of marble?
7. Did Christianity become the most influential religion in the Roman Empire?

8. Did the Christian Church borrow the organization of the Roman Empire?

9. Was the speed of travel and communication in the Roman Empire much slower than in Europe and America a hundred and fifty years ago?

10. Did the Romans refuse to admit the Germans to the army as soldiers or officers?

11. Were the Germans and the Italians both Indo-European peoples?

12. Did the last Roman Emperor lose his throne in 476 A.D.?

13. Did the *fall of Rome* happen in the single year 476?

14. Are the French, Spanish, and Italian languages Germanic languages?

15. Is our alphabet more like the Greek than the Roman alphabet?

Suggested Activities

1. On your outline map used in previous chapters indicate the boundaries of the Roman Empire at its greatest extent and the sites of the ancient cities of Carthage, Rome, Athens, Alexandria, and Constantinople.

2. Prepare to tell the class about the amusements of the Romans.

References: "A Great Show" by Professor Alfred Church and "A Roman Boy's Birthday" by Bertha E. Bush in *Stories of Greece and Rome* Retold from St. Nicholas; "The City of Seven Hills" in Chandler's *Magic Pictures of Long Ago.*

3. Find out by reading ancient myths and legends what the religious ideas of the pagan Romans and primitive Germans were like. Read the myths retold in Haaren and Poland's *Famous Men of the Middle Ages,* pages 7-27. You may find myths by various authors in the library. The following ones are especially recommended: Judd's *Classic Myths;* Perbush's *Myths and Legends of Ancient Greece and Rome;* Barber's *Wagner Opera Stories,* and Mabie's *Norse Stories Retold from the Eddas.*

TEST FOR SECTION ONE

Number the lines on a separate piece of paper to correspond to the numbers of the items in the left hand column in each part of this test. Then select from the right hand column the *name, date,* or *term* which belongs with each item on the left and write it opposite the corresponding number.

Select a *date* for each item.

1. Earliest men appeared
2. Roman Empire came to an end
3. People first became civilized
4. Age of Athenian greatness
5. Alexander established Greek civilization in the ancient world

About 3000 B.C.
By 323 B.C.
Fifth century B.C.
About 500,000 B.C.
Fifth century A.D.

Select a *name* for each item.

1. The leading statesman of the *Golden Age*
2. Jew who spread Christ's teaching in the Roman Empire
3. Man whose conquests spread Greek civilization over the ancient world
4. Roman who carried the government and civilization of Rome into western Europe
5. Poet whose work the modern world reads and enjoys
6. Greek philosopher who educated Alexander the Great
7. An Athenian who wrote a history of the ancient world
8. The founder of Christianity
9. Hebrew who taught his people high ideals of right and wrong through Ten Commandments
10. The despotic Oriental ruler defeated at Marathon

Jesus
Julius Caesar
Darius
Aristotle
Herodotus
Moses
Pericles
Alexander
Homer
Paul

Select a *name* for each item. You may use a name as many times as needed.

1. First learned to use and control fire
2. Brought the alphabet to Europe
3. Discovered the use of metal
4. Invented writing
5. Developed a great system of government and law
6. Developed democratic government
7. Gave the civilized world its leading religion
8. Produced works of art which equal those of modern times
9. Demonstrated the importance of physical education
10. Built roads which are still in use

The Greeks
The Hebrews
Primitive men
The Phoenicians
The Egyptians
The Romans

Select a *term* for each item. Use each term once.

1. Before the birth of Christ
2. Athenian who ran from Marathon to Athens carrying news of the victory
3. An ancient amphitheater at Rome
4. The record of the history and religious ideas of the Jews
5. An Egyptian contribution to architecture
6. Contests held once in four years at the ancient Greek town of Olympia
7. The most famous example of Greek architecture
8. An example of ancient Egyptian skill in sculpture
9. The paper used by the ancient world
10. The university of ancient Alexandria

The Royal Museum
The Old Testament
The Olympic Games
The Parthenon
The Sphinx
The Colosseum
Papyrus
The colonnade
First Marathon Runner
B.C.

SECTION TWO

THE CIVILIZATION OF THE MIDDLE AGES

CHAPTER VIII

HOW THE PEOPLE LIVED IN THE MIDDLE AGES

The central idea. The Middle Ages began with the passing of the Roman Empire. This chapter will help us to understand the life of the people of Europe in the age when the Christian Church and the great feudal landowners did most of the things that governments now do for their citizens.

How the Middle Ages Began

Western Europe settled by Germans. For several hundred years before 476 A.D., when the last Roman emperor lost his throne, the Germans had been coming down into the Roman Empire. Sometimes they came as peaceful settlers and sometimes as conquering armies. Groups of these peoples settled down to farm in the Roman provinces of France, Spain, Africa, and even in Italy itself. Thousands of Germans worked as slaves and freemen on the estates of wealthy Romans. The Roman army, as we noticed, was finally made up almost entirely of German soldiers and German officers. By 476 A.D. not a single province in western Europe remained under Roman control.

Ancient Rome was passing away. The only part of the great Roman Empire that was left was the eastern half. An emperor, calling himself the Roman Emperor, ruled in Constantinople. This Eastern Empire lasted until 1453, when it fell into the

hands of the Turks. In the west there was a new Europe controlled by the Germans.

Our European ancestors. The Germans were of the same Indo-European race as were the Italians, the Greeks, and the Gauls. They wandered into western Europe from the same great pasture land that reached from the Danube River eastward across Russia and over into central Asia. They mixed easily with their civilized relatives of the Roman Empire. The peoples which developed from the mixture of uncivilized Germans with the civilized population in the Roman Empire are the ancestors of most present-day Europeans and Americans.

The influence of civilization on the Germans. The blending of the German peoples with the civilized communities of the Roman Empire slowly softened their northern wildness. By 500 A.D. they were familiar with civilization and had learned to respect it. Their leaders, who had been officers under the Roman government, had won the friendship of many highborn Romans. Such leaders often married educated Roman women of high rank, even close relatives of the emperors.

Some of them were converted to Christianity. An educated German translated the New Testament into the German language. As the German peoples had no writing, he worked out an alphabet from the Greek and Latin. This translation of the New Testament is the earliest known writing in the language of the Germans. They were beginning to be civilized.

The Middle Ages began with the passing of the Roman Empire in the west. This new western Europe was, however, far less civilized than its eastern neighbors. It took the Germans many hundreds of years to appreciate the best things done by the Greeks and the Romans. They destroyed many cities and in some places swept away nearly everything that the Romans had done. The Germans, living in Denmark and Norway far

to the north where they had never been under the influence of the Romans, came in and destroyed nearly all signs of civilization in Britain. The island which the Romans had done so much to beautify and develop became once more a barbarous land.

The new leaders of the civilized world. But these new Europeans preserved many of the gifts of the Greeks and Romans. They added improved customs in the home, better ways of living, and many ideas of freedom which have made life better for us all. They were an energetic and talented race. Their blood flowed in the veins of all the nations which developed in Europe in the Middle Ages—English, French, German, Dutch, Spanish, Scandinavian, and Italian. These nations became the leaders of the civilized world and helped to colonize America in later times.

The power of the church. In the Middle Ages no new world empire rose to control the whole civilized world as Rome had done. There were many separate nations who were continually fighting with each other. Not one of these nations had the fine organization and enlightened laws that we saw in the Roman Empire. The church had developed an organization which commanded the respect and obedience of more people than any government in Europe during the Middle Ages. It was the great world power of that time.

The Church, the Great Power of the Middle Ages

Why the church became a world power. *Its organization.* All the peoples of western Europe paid tribute to the Christian church which had borrowed the splendid organization of the Roman Empire. The priests of the country and village communities were the local officials of the church. A bishop in each big city directed the priests of the city and the surrounding village and country churches. A head bishop (archbishop)

was in charge of each province. The bishop of Rome (called Father or Papa and finally Pope) was the most influential bishop in the world and came to be regarded as the head of the church in western Europe. Within a little over a hundred years after Rome had ceased to be the capital of the Roman government, Rome was regarded as the capital of Christianity in western Europe.

Influence on the life of the people. During the Middle Ages most of the people of Europe were united by their religious belief. All civilized countries were Christian and all Christians, except those under the rule of the emperor at Constantinople, were Roman Catholics. The head of the church, the Pope, could reach and influence more people than any other ruler.

The church was a part of the everyday life of the people. Its kindly priests performed the ceremonies of marriage and burial, administered education, and gave religious consolation. The church often protected the people from the injustices and cruelties of the nobles and the kings who had little regard for the rights of the common folk. The people looked to the church for guidance and protection. It was on the side of peace when governments went daily to war. The church stood solidly when governments fell. It became the only organization to which all people could turn for help.

The monasteries as centers of civilization. *The monastery a refuge from the world.* In the years of disorder that followed the disappearance of Roman government many men sought quiet and peace. The bands of plundering invaders, the constantly fighting nobles, the robbers and highwaymen had more respect for the church than for anything else in the medieval world.

A practice of retiring from the world to a life of prayer and religious meditation had risen in Egypt in the early days of

Christianity and spread to western Europe. In Europe it had given rise to great brotherhoods called monks and sisterhoods called nuns. The places where the brotherhoods lived were

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This is the monastery of Monte Cassino, built in 529 A. D. It was the first monastery of a famous brotherhood of monks, called the Benedictines.

called monasteries. The nuns' dwelling places were called convents. Thousands who wanted to escape from the war and disorder and injustice in the world fled to these quiet monasteries and convents.

Schools of the Middle Ages. The monks in Europe did not spend all their days in dreamy meditation and prayer. They lived apart from the world but, by their work and their study, they preserved the learning of the ancient world which might have been lost altogether. The schools of the Romans had been

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St. Francis of Assisi founded the Franciscan brotherhood of monks about the time of the Crusades. This modern statue in Rome shows the famous medieval monk.

destroyed with their government. One of the eastern Roman emperors, ruling at Constantinople, had even closed the school of philosophy at Athens because the church did not approve of pagan schools. Most of the schools in Europe were conducted in the monasteries and convents and were taught by the monks and nuns.

Preservation of ancient literature and learning. The monks

preserved and passed on the old literature and learning of the Greeks and Romans by making copies of the old books. All the work was done by hand. The books were beautifully illustrated in colors. The manuscripts were so carefully written that it is hard for us to believe that they were not printed.

Art in the Middle Ages. The monks were the only people in the early Middle Ages who had much time to devote to art. They were the painters, the skilled architects, and the expert musicians of that time. The church had great wealth to spend in constructing and decorating her buildings. Her splendid cathedrals are still the treasures of Europe. The passionate devotion of her musicians inspired far finer music than any written by composers of worldly music.

Farming and manufacturing. The work of the monasteries improved agriculture and manufacturing when war and confusion were destroying the towns and laying waste the beautiful estates that had flourished under the Romans. The monks were very successful farmers. The peasants in the neighborhood of each monastery learned a great deal about agriculture from watching the work of the monks in their gardens and fields.

Skilled manufacturing in metals, leather, and glass was done in the monasteries. People for miles around sent their children to the monks to be taught the skilled trades.

Charity and justice. The common people looked to the monasteries for help in case of misfortune. The monks healed the sick, aided the poor, and fed the hungry. Often they protected the peasants from injustice on the part of the nobles.

The church through its monasteries prevented the early Middle Ages from deserving altogether the name *Dark Ages.* The monks kept learning alive in a day when kings and nobles could not read or write. They upheld the dignity of labor in

a day when fighting was regarded as the only honorable occupation in which a gentleman could engage.

Feudalism in the Middle Ages

The power of the landowning noble. In the early Middle Ages there was no organized government in many parts of

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The feudal castle in Normandy, France, where William the Conqueror, who became king of England in 1066, was born. He was Duke of Normandy.

Europe. The disappearance of the Roman government had left the power in the hands of the great landowners who, under the Empire, had owned thousands of acres of land in Italy and the provinces. Many of these landowners were the invading Ger-

mans. Many Romans and natives of the provinces of the Roman Empire had kept their estates.

The great landowners learned, after a time, to build strong fortified castles and to keep troops of armed followers to protect their lands and the peasants who worked on these lands. A ruler, whether he was a king or a German duke, must be able to command the loyalty and armed support of the landowners of the region he ruled. Modern nations with their strong central governments did not develop till centuries later.

The rise of feudal government. Out of the confusion of the times rose a plan of government called feudalism. This was a loose government based on the ownership or control of land. Parliaments of the people did not exist. The people lived under the protection and control of the great landowning nobles.

The ruler was the strongest landowning noble in the state. Other great landowners looked to him for protection and leadership. In return for his protection they agreed to regard him as the real owner of their lands, which they would after that time hold from him in trust. The land so held was called a fief or *feud*. In return for its use the *feudal* noble pledged himself to live up to certain regulations set down by the ruler, among them being loyalty and help in time of war. Each of these great nobles, who were called *vassals* of the king, might have a similar arrangement with a number of lesser nobles. These lesser nobles were his vassals who were bound, in case of need, to rally to his support. The feudal nobles might, therefore, be both vassals and overlords at the same time. With the exception of a few rights and privileges granted to the people by the king, an overlord exercised absolute power on his own holdings.

The towns and cities had local self-government where democ-

racy was practiced after a fashion. But even these cities and towns paid tribute to some noble whose land they occupied.

Constant warfare. At times neighboring nobles quarreled. Then a petty war would take place. If the king had sufficient power he would stop or prevent the fighting. In many cases, however, he lacked the power to preserve order.

Sometimes one or more of the leading nobles would defy the king. In such cases the king would take away the vassal's land if he could. However, if the noble was strong enough and had enough followers, the king often found it impossible to do that. It is quite clear that since each vassal owed loyalty to his immediate overlord and not to the king, there could be no real central authority. There was confusion in government instead of order. Petty warfare was a common thing. Life and property were not safe. National development and progress were delayed. It was a turbulent time.

Life in the feudal castle. *Chivalry.* The business of the nobles was war. Rigid courses of training were developed to make them skilled in this profession. To become a full-fledged warrior, or knight, a noble must win the approval of his fellows, of the church, and of the king. This system of training for knighthood was called chivalry. The period of training was quite long and began usually when the boy was ten or twelve years old. He became a member of the household of a noble and was made a page. His chief duties were to act as messenger and attendant for the lady of the castle. In this way he acquired the polished manners and graceful gestures of the nobility.

When the boy had reached his fourteenth year he became a squire, or a personal attendant to the lord of the castle. He learned to care for the horses, cleaned the sword and other weapons of the lord, kept the master's armor in excellent re-

pair, and made himself generally useful. The youth accompanied his lord on the hunt. He followed him into battle and was ready to assist in any situation. He was given every opportunity to learn the use of the sword. He received training in horsemanship. He was really serving an apprenticeship in chivalry.

The ideals of chivalry were high. A knight was expected to be clean morally and to practice charity and self-denial. He had to be strong physically and there must be no doubt about his courage and skill in warfare. As accepted members of the order of chivalry, all knights were pledged to protect the weak, the widow, and the orphan. They were pledged to give alms to the poor, and to respect and support the church. The standard set for the perfect knight was to be *without fear and without reproach.*

When the young man came of age he was considered for knighthood. The lord in whose household he had been living brought the case to the attention of the leading nobles. They investigated the youth's record and if they thought he had learned to fight well and to live up to the ideals of chivalry, they presented his name to the king.

A date would be set on which the king would make him a knight. The candidate usually spent the night before he was to be knighted in prayer. The church took a great interest in the ceremony and each knight was made to realize that he was pledging allegiance to the church as well as to the king.

On the eventful day the youth appeared before the king and the assembled nobles. He knelt before the throne and pledged himself to uphold the great ideals of chivalry. The king then tapped him on the shoulder with a sword which he presented to the newly-made knight, and spoke the words, "I dub thee knight."

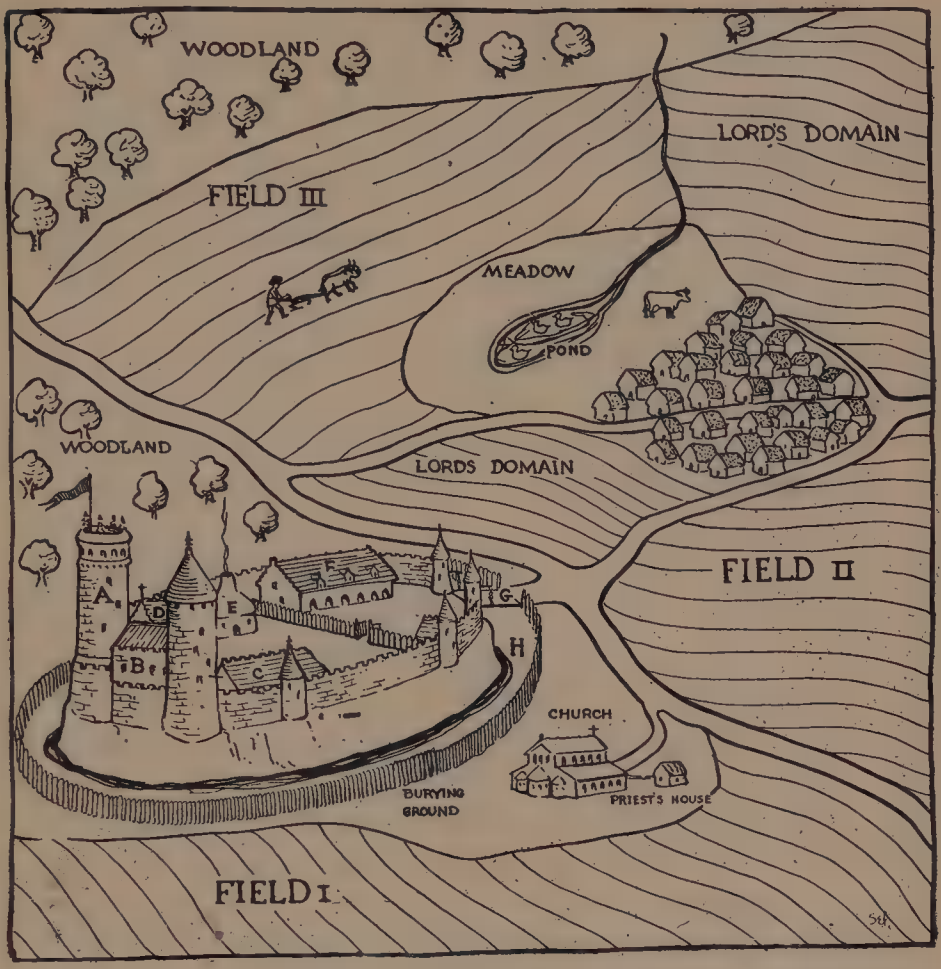
Tournaments. At regular intervals great tournaments were held where the knights of the district took part in contests of skill and daring. These competitions were very much like the athletic meets of today. Contests were conducted in horsemanship and in the use of weapons. Gayly plumed horses carrying heavily armored knights dashed furiously over the field. The armor was usually made of steel plates so arranged that the wearer could use his legs and arms freely. At the same time it protected his person from injury. Some suits of armor were made of chain woven together, resembling a heavy sweater.

Rivalries sprang up among the knights. Challenges to single combats were issued and gladly accepted. These jousts sometimes resulted in serious injury or death. The two competing knights rushed at each other armed with long spears. The purpose of each was to unhorse his opponent. While the spectators watched in tense excitement, the competitors crashed into each other at top speed until one or the other toppled from his horse. The prize was usually a ribbon which the winner received from one of the ladies at the tournament and which he valued highly.

These contests served to keep the knights fit. Great skill and personal bravery as well as robust strength were needed by any knight who wished to be a victŏr.

Gunpowder destroyed chivalry. During the later Middle Ages gunpowder was used in war for the first time. At the battle of Crecy in 1346, the English used small cannons against the French. Their purpose was to frighten the enemy's horses and in this they were quite successful.

Later, shotguns called blunderbusses were invented. These weapons made it possible for rulers to organize armies of foot soldiers. They no longer had to depend on knights and nobles. The common people became the main support of the nation.



Plan of a feudal manor. The Castle: A—donjon; B—residence of the lord; C—quarters of garrison; D—store room; E—kitchen; F—stable; G—drawbridge; H—moat.

Therefore, they grew in power and importance and were able to demand rights and privileges.

The life of the people on a feudal estate. *Rural life.* The common people living on the estates of the feudal lords were either freemen or serfs. The freemen paid rent for the

use of their farms and led a life similar to that of the American tenant farmer. The serf, however, was little better than a slave. He was bought and sold with the land and could not leave the estate without permission.

Each serf had to work a certain number of days on the lord's domain. The rest of the time he worked on a small piece of land set aside for his own use. If it was possible for him to raise more food than his family needed, he might sell the surplus to his overlord or to the people in neighboring towns. The money thus obtained would, after many years perhaps, be enough to purchase his freedom. It was not till toward the latter part of the fifteenth century that serfdom was abolished in most parts of Europe.

Homes on the manor estate. Home life in Europe from 800 to 1500 was quite different from home life today. People led much simpler lives. They had few of the conveniences we enjoy. Household comforts that we regard as necessities were unknown. There were no lamps and no stoves. Glass windows and chimneys with flues were just coming into use for the first time. The houses of the common people were mere thatch-roofed cottages, usually of one story, with stone or earth floors. They had no plumbing and few windows. The stone houses of the well-to-do were thick walled and solidly built.

Even the nobles who lived in great stone castles had none of the simple improvements that may be found in the poorest residences of the present day. The great rooms were dark, drafty, and dirty. The rafters were black from the smoke of the open fires. Frequent attacks by enemies made high, small windows the custom. Life was less comfortable in feudal times than in the days of the Roman Empire.

Travel. People traveled very little. As a general rule, men spent their lives in the immediate neighborhood of their birth-

places. A journey of ten miles or more was regarded as an adventure, and it usually was a daring achievement. The roads were winding trails, unpaved, and unlighted. In many cases robbers attacked the travelers. No protection was provided by the government. There were few taverns, and practically the only refuges for travelers were the monasteries and convents.

Trade. There was little trade. It was limited to products that were easily transported. People had simple tastes and got along with materials produced in the surrounding country. Occasionally a wandering pack-laden merchant would appear with goods from places beyond the horizon. His coming was regarded as an important event, and he had little difficulty in selling his wares.

In the larger cities, especially the seaports, there was a greater variety of goods. But, even there, supplies coming from strange lands were regarded as luxuries to be enjoyed only by the wealthy.

Important Influences in Medieval Life

The Middle Ages began with the passing of the Roman Empire in Europe. When the Germans got control of Europe they destroyed much that had been done by the Romans but were in turn influenced by Roman civilization.

In the early centuries of the Middle Ages there was no strong government to keep law and order. The rulers spent most of their energies fighting with neighboring rulers, unruly feudal nobles among their own subjects, or barbarian invaders. Travel was dangerous, trade decreased, and the influence of the cities declined.

The Christian church inherited the power of Rome in western Europe. The quarrelsome peoples of Europe were bound together by a common belief in Christianity and a common

respect and reverence for the Pope at Rome. The church did more for the people than any government. The priests and bishops performed many services that are now performed by the government. The monasteries kept learning, art, and economic progress alive when men elsewhere were interested chiefly in the art of fighting.

The feudal system developed in the early Middle Ages because the common people needed the protection which the great landowners could give. Under the feudal governments the nobles spent their time in training for warfare. The common people worked on the lands of the noble to secure his protection. Even the cities were protected and controlled by the feudal nobles. Constant wars and poor roads almost stopped trade in many parts of Europe. Each community raised its own food and used only the things that it could supply for itself. The common people were poor and powerless till the latter part of the Middle Ages when trade revived and gunpowder came into use. The use of gunpowder made the common people become important as foot soldiers and helped to destroy chivalry.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

Opposite the number of each of the statements below write the letter representing the best of the three suggested endings. Use a separate sheet of paper.

1. Most present-day Europeans and Americans are descended from the mixture of
   (a) the Egyptians and the Phoenicians with the Indo-European peoples.
   (b) the Greeks with the Indo-European peoples who came into Europe later.
   (c) Germans with the civilized peoples in the Roman Empire.
2. The term *Dark Ages* is a misleading name for the first part of the Middle Ages because
   (a) the great feudal landowners were an educated class.
   (b) the monasteries kept learning and progress alive.
   (c) the cities had good schools.

3. The greatest power in medieval Europe was
   (a) the Emperor of the East at Constantinople.
   (b) the feudal rulers.
   (c) the church.
4. The feudal system developed in the early Middle Ages because
   (a) people needed the protection that the great landowners could give.
   (b) the German kings gave the lands to their nobles.
   (c) gunpowder made the common people important as foot soldiers.
5. The land which a vassal held from his feudal lord was called a
   (a) tournament.
   (b) fief or feud.
   (c) serfdom.

Suggested Activities

1. Discover all you can about the life of the feudal nobles and the ideals of chivalry.

References: Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* chapter X; Chandler's *Magic Pictures of Long Ago,* "Bayard the Brave or the Knight without Fear or Reproach"; Holland's *King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table;* Pyle's, *Men of Iron.*

2. Prepare to make a two minute talk in class about the life of the plain people in the Middle Ages.

References: Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* chapter XI; Lamprey's *In the Days of the Guild.*

3. Make a drawing or diagram showing the plan of a cloister (monastery or convent). Look at the plan of the feudal lord's manor on page 117. See also Van Loon's *Story of Mankind,* page 133, for a simple and helpful diagram. Do some reading about cloisters to secure ideas for your drawing.

References: Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* chapter XII; Lamprey's *In the Days of the Guild,* "The Picture in the Window."

CHAPTER IX

THE MEDIEVAL CITIES; CENTERS OF TRADE AND PROGRESS

The central idea. Commerce, industry, and trade, though crippled for a time, did not disappear during the Middle Ages. The commercial towns of medieval Europe found wealth enough to buy the privilege of self-government, to foster great universities, and to build wonderful cathedrals. This chapter will show us that the towns still remained centers of progress although robber barons rode the highways of Europe and pirates ranged the seas.

Extent of town life. During the period extending from 700 to 1500 only a small part of the population of northern France, Germany, and England lived in towns. In those lands the great majority of the people lived on the great feudal estates. In southern France and Italy, on the other hand, there were many towns. There people preferred to live in towns and villages even though they were engaged in farming. They did not live on their farms but left the towns for the fields in the morning and returned in the evening. In many parts of southern France and Italy that is still the custom.

Trade. The towns were the centers of trade. People for miles around carried their surplus products to the towns. There they exchanged them for supplies which they needed and could not produce. In order to make such exchange of goods easy, the towns held annual fairs. These fairs were regarded as the most important events in the life of the town. They were a source of fun and profit. Many such fairs are held today, especially in the agricultural districts. The custom extended to the European colonies in America, and fairs are held in many American communities at the present time.

Commerce. Goods brought from across the seas were brought to the town fairs, too. The Italian cities were dis-

tributing points for the Mediterranean commerce with Europe. Commerce and sea travel were less safe from pirates than under the Roman Empire.

Until the invention of the compass, commerce was less progressive than in ancient times. Mariners still limited their voyages to trips along the coast. They rarely sailed out of sight of land. This was not because they were timid but because they had to depend on the sun, moon, and stars for direction. When the sky was cloudy they had great difficulty in determining directions.

With the invention of the mariner's compass, which came into use in Europe in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, sailors could venture on the high seas secure in the knowledge that they could always find their way to the home ports. The magnetized needle in the compass always points to the north and the face of the dial indicates the other directions. The compass was a great aid in the period of discovery which began in the latter part of the fifteenth century.

Industry and the influence of the craft guilds. The industrial life of the towns was controlled by organizations known as guilds. They were something like the trade unions of today except that they were composed of master workmen, that is, craftsmen who made and sold their own products.

The guilds, at their best, exerted a wholesome influence on the life of the towns. Each town took great pride in its special product and the local guilds did their utmost to maintain the excellence of the particular product. One town became famous for its glassware, another for its laces, a third for its metal products. While many trades were practiced in each town, an attempt was made in each locality to specialize in one or two products.

The guilds determined the number of apprentices (unpaid

workers who were learning the trade) each master might employ. The term of apprenticeship was specified and was usually three years or longer. After completing his apprenticeship, the worker became a journeyman. As a journeyman he could seek employment where he would be paid for his work. If he sought employment in some other town he must obtain admission to the local guild. After long experience a journeyman might set himself up as a master craftsman.

After a time the guilds had a great influence on the social life of the community. To gain the ill will of the members of one's guild was a serious matter. The guilds cooperated with the church in keeping up the moral tone of the town. They supported the local parish school and made it possible for the children of the town to receive some education.

In most towns the guilds gained control of the local government also. They elected the officials and held them responsible for the proper discharge of their duties. On the whole, the guilds controlled the life of the towns during the Middle Ages and their influence was generally good.

Appearance of the medieval town. *Towns small and crowded.* The average town was small, rarely exceeding two thousand in population. The streets of the towns were narrow, crooked, and unpaved. Except for the market places there were few open spaces. Sanitation was unknown and there were frequent epidemics of typhoid fever and what was probably influenza.

Walls surrounded the towns for protection against enemies in case of war or the attacks of robber bands. Gates in the walls were opened only at certain hours and were always guarded.

Although the homes of the common people were little better than huts, by 1500 almost every town had beautiful churches, guild halls, and palaces.

Progress in the towns. Towns made possible the exchange of ideas as well as the exchange of goods. Men profited by their contacts with their fellow men. Progress was made possible.

Self-government. Progress in self-government came about because of the existence of the towns. The townspeople were usually vassals of some feudal noble on whose land the towns were located. By means of offers of money the towns were able to secure political privileges which those who lived in the country could not hope to obtain. Sometimes they got what they demanded by threats or by actual violence.

Spread of learning. The towns promoted schools. We have noticed that the guilds helped to support the local parish schools. Also, there grew up in the towns of the Middle Ages the universities (guilds of students) taught by lecturers who remind us of the Greek teachers. These medieval universities had few books. Most of the manuscripts of the Greek and Latin libraries had been lost. There remained those that the monks had saved. These were for the most part hand copied.

The invention of printing. The invention of printing was, perhaps, the greatest gift of the Middle Ages to civilization. The ancients knew something about printing. Prints on silk, papyrus, and cloth have come down to us from the Egyptians. During the early Middle Ages some printing was done but not with movable type as it is done today. An entire page had to be carved on wood, and when the required number of prints were made the woodcut was of no further use. Printing, therefore, was slow and expensive. Books were costly and could not be purchased by the great majority of the people.

About 1450 Gutenberg invented the process of printing with movable type. It was no longer necessary to make the expensive woodcuts. Type could be used again and again. Books

became much cheaper. The revival of learning, which started in the Italian cities, spread to France, England, and the other lands of central and western Europe. Gutenberg's invention made it possible for education to grow and spread as never before.

Beauty of medieval buildings. The rise of art in the Middle Ages took place in the towns. The bishops needed artists to build and decorate their great churches which were called *cathedrals*. The merchants and manufacturers grew rich enough to afford handsome guildhalls. The growing trade of the coast towns like Venice and Genoa produced a class of wealthy merchant princes who built fine palaces and who became the friends and patrons of the great artists of the later Middle Ages.

Architecture became important. Every important town had its great church. The church, as the richest and most powerful institution in the Middle Ages, erected the most famous buildings. The monasteries built great chapels called *abbeys* and the bishops built fine churches called *cathedrals*.

These great churches were extraordinarily beautiful stone buildings developed from the rectangular Greek and Roman basilicas or business halls which the early Christians had used for worship. The floor plan of the medieval church came to resemble the form of a cross. Pointed arches, tall spires, wonderful sculptured figures, and marvelous stained glass windows were used for decoration.

As a rule the cathedrals were built with funds contributed by the people, although in some cases a wealthy noble donated great sums of money for the erection of a beautiful church. The devoted common people contributed what little money they could spare and gave their time freely to help erect the buildings. The greatest architects of the period designed them.

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The great medieval cathedral of Notre Dame, Paris, France, as it appears today.

Because the church had to depend on the charity of the people, it took a century or more to complete some of the more important cathedrals.

The cathedrals and abbey churches of Europe, built in the period extending from 1100 to 1500, equal in size and beauty

the great churches of modern times. Many of them are still in excellent repair and constant use. Among the best known are Westminster Abbey in London, St. Peter's in Rome, and Notre Dame in Paris. Many of our finest American churches reproduce the style and stately loveliness of the medieval cathedrals.

At the very end of the Middle Ages some of the world's greatest painters, sculptors, and architects were building and decorating the church buildings in the cities of Italy, especially in Rome. Leonardo da Vinci painted his famous *Last Supper* on the wall of an Italian church. Such geniuses as Michael-angelo and Raphael were painting their marvelous religious scenes on the walls and ceilings of the Pope's palace and chapel in Rome. The painters of the Middle Ages learned to show distance in their pictures as never before. They produced some of the world's most celebrated paintings.

The remarkable thing about the artists of the later Middle Ages was that they were talented in many directions. Michael-angelo, who painted the picture called *The Last Judgment* on the walls of the Pope's Sistine Chapel, was perhaps even greater as a sculptor than he was as a painter. He was also a distin-guished engineer and architect. The architecture of the medieval churches and the famous paintings and sculptures that decorate them are among the finest achievements of the age.

The importance of the medieval towns. Although the towns were small, dirty, and crowded they were the centers of manufacture and trade, of self-government, of learning, and of artistic beauty. Through progress in the towns the Middle Ages made a great part of its contribution to modern civiliza-tion.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper number the lines 1 to 10 to represent the 10 statements below. Opposite each number write the name, found in the second column below, which belongs with the statement having that number.

1. An instrument for determining direction	Notre Dame
2. Organization for controlling industry	Gutenberg
3. Unpaid worker, learning the trade	guild
4. Inventor of the printing press	town fair
5. A famous medieval church	apprentice
6. Painter of *The Last Supper*	Michaelangelo
7. Guilds of students	Leonardo da Vinci
8. Painter, sculptor, and architect	compass
9. A gathering of people for trade	typhoid epidemics
10. Result of unsanitary conditions	universities

Suggested Activities

1. Make a picture collection of existing cathedrals, both medieval buildings and modern buildings, which illustrate the style of the medieval cathedrals. In these pictures find examples of pointed arches, tall spires, the *rose window* of wonderful stained glass, and the flying buttresses that supported the walls.

2. Play the role of an apprentice boy in some medieval city and write one page of a diary such as he would write. You can find out what he would see and do by reading Lamprey's *In the Days of the Guild* and Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* chapter XI.

3. Prepare a brief talk on *The Inventor of the Printing Press.* Read *Famous Men of the Middle Ages,* by Haaren and Poland, pages 257-263.

4. Find out how Michaelangelo became a great artist. Read Holland's, *Historic Boyhoods,* pages 21-34.

CHAPTER X

HOW THE CRUSADES HASTENED THE COMING OF MODERN TIMES

The central idea. The ancient learning of the East had been preserved among the Arabs, and the learning of the Greeks and Romans had been preserved by the Eastern Roman Empire which had its capital at Constantinople. The Crusades brought the Europeans of the Middle Ages into contact with this ancient learning. This chapter will show how the Europeans were influenced by the civilization which they found in the East.

What the Crusades Were

Pilgrimages to the Holy Land. Christians in the Middle Ages believed that a pilgrimage to Jerusalem and the Holy Land would help them to win salvation. The custom had grown up under the Roman Empire and many still made the journey, even though travel was very difficult and dangerous.

Jerusalem seized by the Turks. With the weakening of the Roman Empire the Arabs had invaded its provinces in Asia and Africa just as the Germans had invaded the provinces in Europe. They even came up, by way of Spain, into Europe where they were defeated by the Germans at Tours in southern France (732). So it was that a people who were not Christians ruled Palestine and its Holy City, Jerusalem.

The Arabs did not interfere with the pilgrims. But word came to western Europe toward the end of the eleventh century that the Turks, a fierce people from inner Asia, had gained control of the Holy Land and were attacking the pilgrims. At once Europe was aroused. The people felt that their chances of salvation were endangered. The Pope called a council of the leaders of western Europe. The council met at Clermont, France, in 1095.

The Pope's plan to capture Jerusalem. The Pope spoke before the council with great feeling and eloquence on the necessity of regaining control of the Holy Land. His hearers stirred the people of Europe to action. Thousands called themselves *crusaders* or soldiers of the cross and planned to go to Palestine to recapture Jerusalem.

Some of the more impatient set out for the Holy Land at once under the leadership of Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless. They were not an army but an unorganized mob. They took no food with them, for they expected to live on what they might be able to obtain from farmers and others on the way. Soon hunger and disease weakened them to such an extent that the journey was given up and they disbanded.

The First Crusade. There were eight crusades in all. The first occurred in 1095 and the last in 1295. Only the first and third are of real importance. Jerusalem was captured during the first Crusade. A few years later, however, the Turks recaptured the city. The work therefore had to be done over again.

The Third Crusade. The most carefully organized crusade was the third. The kings of Austria, England, and France raised large armies. The armies were well equipped and properly trained. But this crusade suffered from having too many leaders. Richard I of England, called Lionheart, felt he should be commander in chief. Philip Augustus of France had a similar idea. Frederick of Austria saw no reason for yielding to the other two kings.

On the way to Jerusalem Frederick died, and the command of his forces was taken over by Duke Leopold of Austria. This made matters worse because the two kings felt superior to a mere duke. After many difficulties they reached Asia Minor. There personal disputes arose between Richard and Philip

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The enthusiasm of the Crusaders at their first view of Jerusalem

Augustus. The French king withdrew his army and returned to France. Some time later Leopold had a quarrel with Richard and withdrew his forces. The English soldiers were left to carry on the work alone.

King Richard, who was a feudal knight trained in chivalry, inspired his men by his personal bravery and great skill in

combat. The enemy had a great fighting leader named Saladin. He defied the Christians and offered to fight any man in their ranks. Richard accepted the challenge. The fight between these two great leaders thrilled all who saw it. While members of both sides watched breathlessly, the two champions charged. Richard was stronger. Saladin was swifter. The Christian leader was unable to corner his opponent. They fought what was perhaps the greatest duel of that time. Finally they agreed to call it a drawn battle. This fight did much to encourage the Christians but it made them realize that it would be no easy matter to regain Jerusalem.

The English fought bravely and stubbornly but did not succeed in capturing Jerusalem. However, a treaty was made which permitted pilgrims to visit Jerusalem without interference.

Later crusades. From that time to the end of the thirteenth century there were five more crusades. None of them was successful in recapturing Jerusalem. By that time the people of Europe began to turn their attention to other problems. They resigned themselves to the belief that the Holy Land could not be captured and found consolation in the thought that they might visit Jerusalem without being molested.

It is clear that as military expeditions to gain possession of Palestine, the Crusades were not particularly important.

The Results of the Crusades

Increase in travel and commerce. The returning crusaders told glowing accounts of their experiences. They learned to wear the beautiful flowing eastern clothes of silk and cotton. They had acquired a taste for new foods, such as spinach and peaches, which they planted in the gardens of Europe to raise for their own use. The curiosity and interest of the stay-at-

homes grew. A great desire for travel developed. The Crusades went on for two hundred years. Before long a crusading trip to the Holy Land became part of the liberal education of every young noble. Travel became common. Men who had never left their native villages now undertook long journeys.

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A gathering of churchmen and feudal nobles in the time of the Crusades. In the group are the Pope; the Emperor of Germany; and crusading nobles from England, France, and the Island of Cyprus.

The crusaders had found in the East products that were entirely new to most of them. On their return to their native lands they brought back many of these products. Before the Crusades very few people in Europe knew what sugar was. Now a demand for it arose all over Europe. Silk had been used only by the very rich. Silks, spices, rugs, carpets, and precious stones now became known to all. Naturally the people of western Europe learned to like them. As a result, a great trade in Asiatic products sprang up. Some trade with Asia

Minor had been carried on by Mediterranean ports before the Crusades. Now this trade increased a hundredfold.

The revival of learning. The great interest in travel and the growth of trade brought about a noticeable change in the attitude of the people. Before the Crusades the western Europeans had been distrustful of strangers. They had looked with suspicion on things and ideas from other lands. Because of their lack of information they had regarded all distant places as barbarous. Travel and trade brought them into contact with other lands and different peoples. They learned to understand and appreciate other points of view. They became broader intellectually.

You will recall that a great part of the learning of the Romans had been destroyed during the German invasion. Education in western Europe was held back because of that loss. In eastern Europe, however, the old learning had not been destroyed. It had increased and developed. The crusaders were surprised to find the East far ahead of the West in culture and scientific knowledge. On their return from their pilgrimages they informed the people of their discovery. Old manuscripts in Latin and Greek were brought back. Hundreds of eastern teachers were persuaded to visit France, Italy, England, and the rest of western Europe. There was a great revival of learning beginning in the cities of Italy.

Breaking down of feudalism. Feudalism suffered a severe blow as a result of the Crusades. Many of the feudal nobles had been killed during the fighting. Others had died on the way to the Holy Land. Some of those who had survived had settled in new lands where they saw greater opportunities. Very frequently when the nobles had failed to return their lands had reverted to the king. The people living on the land looked to the king for protection. He was thus able to depend

on their support in time of war. In many instances the feudal nobles, needing funds for fitting out expeditions to the Holy Land, had raised the money by selling privileges to the people of the manors and of the towns. After the Crusades these

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Weapons and armor in use at the beginning of modern times. Note the crossbows and guns whose use marked the rising importance of common people as foot soldiers. The suit of armor shows that the knight on horseback had not yet disappeared.

nobles found themselves poor and with much of their power gone.

In each country the king exercised more and more authority. The common people looked directly to him for protection. The great modern nations came into being with the downfall of feudalism.

Importance of the Crusades

The Crusades were an unsuccessful series of expeditions for the purpose of putting Christian Europe in control of the Holy Land. But the Crusades may be regarded as an important movement in history for several reasons.

1. They led to a *great increase in travel and trade.* The desire to grow rich through foreign trade and the growing boldness in sea travel helped to bring about a search for new trade routes.

2. They were followed by a *great revival of learning.* This was the result of the recovery of the old Greek and Roman manuscripts and of the fact that travel made people more liberal minded.

3. They hastened the *rise of united modern nations* with strong central governments. The Crusades helped to end the confusion and disunion of feudal times by making the kings and common people more powerful and feudal nobles fewer and less powerful.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

Using a separate sheet of paper, write the missing words in the sentences below.

1. The custom of making _____ to the Holy Land had grown up in the days of the Roman Empire.

2. In the early part of the Middle Ages Palestine had been in the hands of the _____.

3. The Europeans determined to get possession of the Holy Land when the _____ began molesting the pilgrims to Jerusalem.

4. The most important of the Crusades were the _____ and the _____ Crusades.

5. The Crusades were important chiefly because they resulted in a great increase of _____ and _____, a revival of _____, and the breakdown of _____.

Suggested Activities

1. Prepare to make a report to the class on the Crusades. Read Tappan's *Old World Hero Stories,* pages 136-151. You will find *A Boy of the Lost Crusade* by Hewes an interesting story.

2. Prepare for a class discussion on "How England Began."

References: Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* chapter IX; Tappan's *In the Days of Alfred the Great;* Tappan's *In the Days of William the Conqueror.*

3. Richard the Lionhearted spent only six months in England during all the ten years he was king. His brother John ruled for him while he was on the Crusades and succeeded him on the throne. Find out why King John signed the *Magna Charta* and why it is called the foundation of British liberties.

References: Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* pages 205-213; Tappan's *Old World Hero Stories,* pages 111-117.

4. Marco Polo was one of the great travelers of the period following the Crusades. Read some of the stories about this famous traveler. One story may be found in *Old World Hero Stories* by Tappan. Find other accounts in the library.

TEST FOR SECTION TWO

Opposite the number of each statement below write the letter which represents the best ending for the statement. Use a separate sheet of paper.

1. The medieval church and the feudal nobles were powerful because
   (a) the people were too poor and ignorant to revolt.
   (b) the rulers of the time were busy fighting barbarian invaders.
   (c) they did most of the things that governments now do for the people.
2. The passing of the Roman Empire
   (a) caused trade, industry, and commerce to disappear completely.
   (b) crippled commerce, trade, and industry for a time.
   (c) stimulated trade, industry, and commerce in the towns.
3. The importance of the towns in the Middle Ages was due to
   (a) the promotion of schools by their guilds.
   (b) the protection they offered against attack.
   (c) their influence on the progress of art, learning, and self-government.
4. The Crusades hastened the coming of modern times by
   (a) insuring Christians the right to visit Jerusalem.
   (b) stimulating trade, education, and the rise of national states.
   (c) showing the powerful influence of religion on the lives of the people.
5. The Crusades continued from the end of the
   (a) eleventh to the end of the thirteenth century.
   (b) fifth to the end of the seventh century.
   (c) ninth to the end of the eleventh century.

On a separate sheet of paper write the terms which have been left out of the sentences below.

1. _____ are places where men called monks devote their time to religious meditation and service.
2. _____ are places where women called nuns devote their lives to religion.
3. The bishop of Rome, who was called Father or _____, became the head of the Christian church.
4. A _____ was a worker who could neither leave the land nor be deprived of the right to live on it.
5. A _____ was one who held his land from a feudal lord.
6. A _____ was land held by a feudal vassal from his lord.
7. Knighthood and training for knighthood were called _____.
8. _____ were group contests of skill and bravery among armed knights.
9. _____ were organizations of medieval merchants and manufacturers for control of industry and trade.
10. An _____ was an unpaid worker who was learning a trade.
11. The _____ were the beautiful medieval churches where the bishops held services.
12. The name used for the shotguns of late medieval times was _____.

Each condition named on the right was the direct result of one of the conditions named on the left. On a separate sheet of paper write each result opposite the number of its cause.

Cause	*Result*
1. Coming of Germans from Norway and Denmark	Importance of the common people as soldiers
2. Use of gunpowder	Power of the medieval church
3. Constant war and poor roads	Safer sea travel
4. Invention of the compass	Decline of travel and trade
5. Invention of printing	Decrease in number and power of feudal nobles
6. Turkish invasion of Palestine	Rise of feudal government
7. Unsanitary conditions in towns	Beginning of the Crusades
8. The Crusades	Many books and widespread learning
9. Need of peasants and smaller landowners for protection	Frequent epidemics of disease
10. World-wide organization and service to the people	Disappearance of the influence of Roman civilization from Britain

SECTION THREE

THE DISCOVERY OF NEW LANDS

CHAPTER XI

THE BEGINNING OF MODERN TIMES

The central idea. Since ancient times civilization had centered in the cities around the Mediterranean Sea. With the discovery of new trade routes and new lands the nations of western Europe along the Atlantic coast became the leading nations of the world. This chapter deals with the discovery of a new all-water route around Africa to India.

Why Men Wanted to Reach the Far East

Trade with the East. One of the important results of the Crusades was the great increase in trade between Europe and the East. This trade had existed since the days of the Egyptian Empire, but on a small scale. Now that all of western Europe was eager to use eastern goods, the trade had grown enormously.

The Europeans had come to depend on sugar, coffee, and spices as part of their diet. Spices were used in the preserving, as well as the seasoning, of food which spoiled easily, for the Europeans of the Middle Ages had no refrigerators and no canned goods. They had learned to use Persian rugs and carpets. Oriental perfumes pleased them, and jewels and precious stones from the East delighted them. Many drugs were likewise secured from Asia.

In exchange for these Oriental products Europe offered tin and other useful metals, amber, lumber, and furs or hides. At

times the people of the East imported grains also from Europe.

The cities of Europe enriched by trade. *Genoa and Venice.* Almost all of this commerce to and from the East passed through Genoa and Venice. The Italian merchants obtained supplies directly from Asia. When these goods

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The harbor of Venice today. This was the gateway of commerce between Europe and the Orient in the period following the Crusades.

reached Genoa or Venice they were carefully sorted and packed for shipment to the people of western Europe. Merchants in all European countries purchased their wares from Genoa and Venice, so that practically all the eastern products sold in Europe passed through these Italian cities.

On the other hand European products offered in exchange found their way to Genoa and Venice. The merchants of those

cities then shipped them to the East. These two cities were truly the gateways of the trade with the East.

Although practically every important Italian port traded with the East, Genoa and Venice were the greatest commercial cities. They had built up their rich trade during the Crusades. Their ships had carried the men and supplies across to the wars in the Holy Land. When the great demand for eastern goods developed, Genoa and Venice undertook to satisfy it. They were in a favorable location, they had the ships, and they were familiar with eastern people and methods of trade.

The chief trade route of Venice to the East followed the Adriatic Sea to the Mediterranean, then ran south on the Mediterranean to the Isthmus of Suez, across the isthmus by caravan to the Red Sea, on that sea to the Indian Ocean, and then to the various important ports of Asia.

Great warehouses and trading posts were built at various places along the route and at the important ports of Asia. Agreements were made with the local chieftains so that Venice's trade was not molested. The caravans were rarely attacked. The business was so large that it represented the difference between prosperity and poverty for Venice. Therefore, every precaution was taken to protect and develop the trade.

Across the Italian peninsula to the west of Venice was Genoa. This city had also been in a position to profit from the Crusades. It had gone into the Asiatic trade with as much energy and determination as Venice. The two cities had become bitter commercial rivals.

Genoa had also become very prosperous. It had a much better harbor than that of Venice, while its location was just as favorable as that of its rival. Soon ships from all the countries of western Europe might be seen at anchor in the harbor.

Genoa resembled a modern city in its businesslike hustling

attitude. Many splendid buildings gave evidence of its wealth, although the city was not so beautiful as Venice. At any rate it was practically as prosperous and certainly as much interested in trade.

A caravan. The merchants of Genoa and Venice carried goods across Asia by caravan.

In order to avoid trouble with Venice, the Genoese merchants used a different trade route by which they traveled on the Mediterranean to the Aegean Sea, on the Aegean Sea to the Strait of Bosporus, through that strait to the Black Sea, by caravans from the Black Sea to the Caspian Sea, then across

that sea or overland to the various ports of Asia. Warehouses and trading posts were erected along the route. Treaties were made with the various tribes whose land the route crossed. The Genoese took all possible means to protect their trade just as the Venetians did. Together Genoa and Venice almost monopolized the trade with Asia.

Marseilles in France. Another important commercial city in Europe was Marseilles. Situated on the Mediterranean coast of France at the mouth of the Rhone River it controlled the trade of that region. Its ships were found in all the important harbors of the Mediterranean and the west coast of Europe. Unlike the great Italian cities, however, Marseilles did not obtain its goods directly from Asia. The Marseilles merchants purchased Asiatic goods from Genoa or Venice and then sold them to France, Spain, and other western countries. Marseilles was not a rival of the two Italian cities but acted as a distributor of their goods.

Bristol in England. In England the chief commercial city was Bristol. Ships from many countries crowded her harbor. Bristol ships traded in the important harbors of Europe. As in the case of Marseilles, the merchants of Bristol got their stocks of eastern goods from Genoa and Venice. These supplies were then sold in the various towns of England.

The Hanseatic League. Several of the important commercial cities of Germany—the chief cities were Bremen, Lubeck, and Hamburg—formed an association known as the Hanseatic League to protect their trade from heavy tolls, annoying laws, and pirates. The League grew and soon included in its membership the most important cities of Germany, Denmark, and the Scandinavian countries. It controlled the trade on the North and Baltic Seas.

At first the Hanseatic League was interested in commercial

matters only, but after a while it became a political power. It made many enemies, especially among the feudal nobles. The League had prevented the nobles from collecting tolls from the

The walls of Visby on the island of Gothland where the keys to the common chest of the Hanseatic League were kept. This Swedish town, which was the first foreign town to join the German cities in the League, possesses about the best example of medieval walls in all Europe.

various merchants who passed through their territory. Naturally the nobles fought the League.

The Hanseatic League's interference in the politics of northern and central Europe brought about its downfall. The

member cities quarreled among themselves and separated. While it lasted, however, it did a great deal to develop the trade of central and northern Europe. It built many warehouses and trading posts. It caused the growth of a number of great cities. Education and progress go along with commerce, and the area

The quarters of the Hanseatic League at Bergen, Norway. The building with the peaked tile roof is the old "factory," or trading post, of the League.

covered by the Hanseatic League owed a great part of its development to that organization.

The League did not obtain Asiatic goods directly from Asia but purchased them in Genoa and Venice. But just as the Italian cities monopolized the eastern trade, the Hanseatic League controlled the production and sale of lumber, furs, fish,

and many manufactured articles in Europe. In fact it was more interested in those goods than in supplies from the East.

Need for a cheap and safe route to the Far East. *The Turks endanger the Italian overland routes.* At best, the commerce with the Far East was costly and dangerous. When the Turks seized Constantinople in 1453 they cut off the Genoese route altogether. You will recall that Genoa's route led through the Strait of Bosporus. Her ships were unable to pass into the Black Sea because of Turkish attacks. This meant that the great wealth built up by the eastern trade was endangered. Nearly everybody in the city was in some way dependent on commerce. Business began to fall off at once in Genoa. However, Venice profited by Genoa's misfortune. The southern trade route was still safe enough. The Venetian merchants found a greater demand than ever for their goods. Venice became even more prosperous.

This prosperity of Venice did not last, however. About ten years after they had seized Constantinople the Turks extended their control to northern Africa. Their control of the Isthmus of Suez blocked the Venetian route. The trip overland across Asia became so costly and so dangerous that some other route was needed to supply the markets of Europe.

A cheap safe water route needed. The people of Europe had become so accustomed to the use of Oriental products that they wanted them in greater quantities than ever and at as low a price as possible. The rising nations of Europe were eager to share the trade. The thing to do was to find cheaper and less dangerous routes than those used by the Italian cities.

It is true that trading ships were often attacked by pirates. But armed men could and did protect their ships. It was not so easy to protect the caravans. It took such a large force of fighting men to accompany each caravan that trade was un-

profitable. Therefore, what Europe needed and sought most eagerly was a new all-water trade route to Asia.

The Discovery of an All-Water Route Around Africa

Why Portugal led the search. *Unfavorable position of Italian cities.* Genoa and Venice had controlled the eastern trade because of their very favorable location. They were so situated that they were on the natural routes to Asia. All trade to and from the East was bound to pass their way. Now that these routes were cut off, their position was a handicap in the search for new routes.

All-water routes had to be found by way of the Atlantic Ocean. The Italian cities were thus put to a great disadvantage. The countries enjoying the greatest advantage were those bordering on the ocean, such as Portugal, Spain, France, and England.

Why Spain was slow. Spain had a favorable location for seeking the new route. But her attention was on another problem. Back in the seventh century the Arabs came into Spain by way of northern Africa. These people, who were Mohammedan in religion, were so superior to the natives in civilization and military skill that they won almost complete control of the country. The Spaniards called them Moors. These Moors were especially strong in southern Spain which became Moorish in civilization. For several centuries they controlled the life of Spain. The people tried to drive them out at various times but the Moors always proved themselves too strong.

Finally toward the end of the fifteenth century the various feudal states in Spain united into a single Spanish nation. Now the people felt they had an opportunity to get rid of the Moors.

The driving out of these Orientals became the most important aim of the Spanish people.

They had been so occupied with this problem that they had no time to pay much attention to anything else. They knew of the need for a new all-water route to the East but were unwilling to bend their energies in that direction until the Moors were driven out.

Difficulties of France. France also was too busy developing into a modern nation to attempt to seek new trade routes. The feudal nobles in France were engaged in making war on each other. The king was trying to establish order.

The people were inclined to support the king in his efforts to build a united nation. Some of the nobles openly defied the king who was not strong enough to compel obedience. While Spain was fighting the Moors, France was busy trying to put an end to the evils of feudalism. France was in no position to take advantage of her favorable location on the Atlantic coast in the race for a new route to the East.

Why England held back. England was a third country in which feudalism was giving way to a united nation. In England, in the middle of the fifteenth century, a great struggle for the throne was going on between two feudal families. They were known as the House of York and the House of Lancaster. It happened that each of these families had a rose in its coat of arms. Lancaster had a white rose and York a red rose.

The struggle which covered a period of about thirty years was known as the War of the Roses. It helped to destroy feudalism by killing off the feudal nobles. By the time the matter was settled England was unified into a nation with a strong king, but the nation was poor. It had to give its attention to the problem of rebuilding the country. As yet England

had neither money nor time to spend in the search for a new trade route.

Why Portugal began the search. Thus we find that while four countries: namely, Spain, France, England, and Portugal, were favorably located for attempts to find a new route to the East, the only one free to push the search was Portugal. While the other nations of western Europe were occupied with other problems, Portugal sent out her sea captains to find a new way to the East. She saw an opportunity to become a prosperous and powerful nation through control of the trade with Asia.

The plan of Henry the Navigator. The country which began to search for a new all-water route was Portugal. The ruler of the country was so keenly interested in exploration and seamanship that he was known as Henry the Navigator. He had encouraged his sailors to begin the search some years before 1453. He had not waited until the Turks cut off the Italian routes. He believed it would be possible to share in the prosperity which resulted from the trade with the East by finding a new route around the southern end of Africa.

Henry had established schools for the study of geography and navigation. By Henry's day the medieval seamen had learned a good deal. As early as the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, larger ships and the invention of the rudder and the compass had made seamen braver about going out of sight of land. In the fifteenth century the use of the astrolabe, an instrument for determining latitudes on the seas, made deep-sea sailing safer. The recovery of Greek and Roman manuscripts during the Crusades spread the idea that the earth was round. The Portuguese school made many improved maps and charts.

Henry had encouraged his best seamen to study navigation

and to undertake voyages of discovery. By the time the need for a new route grew pressing, Portugal had the best seamen in Europe. Henry with renewed energy advanced the plan for a new route around the continent of Africa.

While the other nations of western Europe were occupied with other problems, Portugal was sending out her sea captains to find the new way to the East. One Portuguese navigator after another sailed south along the African coast. Each succeeded in going some distance farther than the one before him. By the time of Henry's death, Portuguese sailors had sailed some distance past the equator and were on the way to success.

Finding the route. *Diaz rounds the tip of Africa.* Henry the Navigator died, but his successor continued to send out ships. He also encouraged his sailors in the plan to sail around the southern end of Africa. About six years before the discovery of America one captain bolder than the rest set out. His name was Bartholomew Diaz.

After crossing the equator Diaz was caught in a violent storm. The wind, blowing a terrific gale, drove his ship before it. For nearly two weeks the storm continued and drove the little ship steadily southward. When the storm died down, Diaz turned his ship to the east in order to strike the coast of Africa.

He sailed in that direction for days without sighting land. Very much puzzled he turned his vessel northward and finally sighted land to the west. He realized that he had either rounded the southern end of Africa and was now on the eastern coast of the continent or that he had found a strange land.

The appearance of the shore convinced him that he was on the African coast. He was anxious to proceed to India. The crew refused to continue the voyage and forced him to return to Portugal. The little ship hugged the shore on the return

journey and soon rounded the southern point of Africa. Prince Henry's dream had come true. Diaz was sure that his ships could go all the way to India without once unloading.

The weather at the tip of Africa was so bad that Diaz called it the Cape of Storms. In a few months he reached Portugal and carried the great news of his discovery to the king who was delighted that the southern cape of Africa had been reached. Because there was a great opportunity now to reach Asia, he renamed the tip of Africa the Cape of Good Hope.

The all-water route found. There was much enthusiasm in Portugal over the voyage of Diaz. Other captains set out to follow his example. All of them failed, however, for one cause or another. In 1497 Vasco da Gama, a very capable navigator, set out to reach Asia by way of the Cape of Good Hope. He met all sorts of difficulties. Storms tossed his ship for days. His crew became frightened and begged him to return. Da Gama refused to be beaten and kept on his course.

After some weeks he rounded the Cape of Good Hope and turned his vessel northward. After many days of sailing along the east coast of Africa he reached the island of Madagascar. Here he met merchants from Arabia and Persia. Finally he reached India.

Da Gama paid his respects to the ruler and presented him with beautiful gifts. The ruler made the explorer and his men welcome. When it was time to return to Portugal, Da Gama made a trade agreement with the king, loaded his vessel with Indian products, and set out for home. He reached Portugal with the glad news in 1498. The new all-water route had been found.

Within a few years Portuguese trading posts were established in Asia. Portugal reaped a rich harvest from her trade and became one of the important nations of Europe. Colonies were

established on the islands off the coast of Asia some of which are still in possession of Portugal. Her ships might be found in all the important eastern harbors. She had become the successor of Genoa and Venice in controlling the Asiatic trade.

How Modern Times Began

A great increase in trade and travel marked the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern times. The people of Europe developed an extensive trade with the people of the East. Two Italian cities, Venice and Genoa, were the chief European ports through which the trade was carried on. The trade routes used by these cities led overland. When the Turks began to interfere with this overland trade, the people of Europe felt that they must find a new and safe trade route. Portugal led the way in the search for an all-water route around the southern end of Africa. It was Da Gama, a Portuguese sailor, who first made a trip to India by an all-water route.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper write *yes* or *no* in answer to each of the questions below.

1. After the time of the Crusades, did the Europeans regard sugar, coffee, and spices as very necessary articles of food?
2. Did the chief trade route used by Venice run through the Black Sea?
3. Did Genoa and Venice control most of the trade with the Far East?
4. Did the nations of western Europe want to share the riches from the far eastern trade?
5. Was an overland trade route to India in the latter Middle Ages cheaper and safer than an all-water route?
6. Was Marseilles in the Hanseatic League?
7. Did the Hanseatic League promote manufacture and trade in northern and central Europe?
8. Did Spain send Diaz on his journey around the Cape of Good Hope?

9. Was Prince Henry the Navigator interested in finding a new water route to India even before the old routes became unprofitable?

10. Did Vasco da Gama sail around Africa to India before the discovery of America?

Suggested Activities

1. On an outline map of the world trace the chief trade routes used by Genoa and Venice to the Far East, and show Vasco da Gama's route around Africa. Keep your map to use with chapter XII.

2. Prepare for a class discussion on the subject, Why the Europeans Wanted to Trade with the Far East. Read "How Pepper Helped to Discover America" in Barstow's *Explorers and Settlers.*

3. Prepare to explain why Vasco da Gama's journey to India was important. Read Hall's *Our Ancestors in Europe,* pages 356-360.

CHAPTER XII

THE DISCOVERY OF THE NEW WORLD

The central idea. This chapter will show how Columbus got the idea that the shortest and cheapest trade route to the Far East must lead westward across the Atlantic. We shall learn how his famous voyages failed to win Spain a share in the far eastern trade but did open the door to modern times by the discovery of the New World.

Columbus' Great Idea

What Columbus learned in Genoa. Perhaps in all history there is no name better known than that of Columbus. But in spite of this world-wide fame we do not know much about his life.

For instance, we are not certain of the date of his birth. Some historians agree on 1435, others suggest 1446, while still others insist he was born in 1451. There is a difference of opinion as to his birthplace, although most historians agree that he was born in Genoa. We do know, however, that as a young man he was a sailor on various Genoese ships.

As a boy he must have noted the decline in the prosperity of his home town. He must have heard many discussions about the need for new trade routes. Very likely he may have listened to men who suggested various plans for reaching the East. He grew up in a city where the chief topic of interest was the need for new trade routes.

We know he was an intelligent boy and that he was especially interested in geography and navigation. Some of the books and other material which he studied were based on the writings of the ancient Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans. In view of the fact that the Greeks believed the earth to be round, we can

readily understand how he arrived at his idea that he could reach the East by sailing westward across the Atlantic.

What Columbus learned in Portugal. Columbus left Genoa and went to Lisbon, Portugal. There he obtained employment as a sailor. His older brother, Bartholomew, had been employed on Portuguese ships for some time. He probably gave Christopher much valuable information. While in Portugal Columbus married and had a son, Diego, who became his inseparable companion. His father-in-law was the chief geographer for the Portuguese court, and Columbus was able to study all the maps in his possession.

Columbus now became firmly convinced that the way to reach Asia was by sailing westward. He wrote to Toscanelli, the famous Italian scholar, explaining his plans and his reasons for them. Toscanelli replied that Columbus was probably right. This reply encouraged Columbus and he set about seeking ways and means for reaching the East.

Experience in exploration. Before attempting a westward voyage Columbus made a voyage northward along the coast of Europe. It is believed that he reached Iceland where he may have learned of a land to the west which the natives called Vinland. This information may have strengthened him in his great purpose, by making him think that Asia was not very far away.

In arriving at his plan to reach the East by sailing across the Atlantic, Columbus had made a serious error. This mistake turned out to be a very fortunate one for him and all mankind as well. He estimated that the earth was only one-third its real size. According to his estimate the distance from Europe to Asia, across the Atlantic Ocean, was not more than four thousand miles. For this reason he regarded the Portuguese

route as far too long and insisted that the shortest possible way to Asia was westward from Europe.

Getting a Nation to Help

Portugal's lost opportunity. Columbus laid his plan before King John of Portugal. The king was interested in the route around Africa but asked Columbus to leave his maps and other material with him for study. Then the Portuguese king did a rather dishonorable thing. He instructed one of his ship captains to sail westward to test Columbus' plan. When only a few days from land the crew became frightened and forced the captain to return.

When Columbus learned of the treacherous attempt he recovered his papers and left Portugal in disgust. His wife had died and he was almost penniless. He was discouraged. There was a hope that Spain might help him. Accompanied by his son he went there.

Spain's great opportunity. *Conditions in Spain.* Spain was in the midst of her most determined attempt to drive out the Moors. For the first time in centuries the different provinces of Spain were united in the struggle. Columbus found it difficult to persuade the king to take his mind off the Moorish problem long enough to listen to a plan for securing trade.

However, Columbus was given a hearing at the court. His dignified bearing and enthusiastic belief in his plan made a very strong impression on Queen Isabel. The king was not greatly interested and refused to give the assistance needed to undertake the expedition. King Ferdinand let it be understood that he was too busy with the war against the Moors to give his attention to Columbus and his plans. Hoping that he might finally secure the money he needed, Columbus stayed in Spain.

He enlisted in the Spanish army and took part in several battles against the Moors.

At last the Moors were totally defeated and forced to leave Spain. Columbus once more brought his plan to the king's attention. The queen persuaded Ferdinand to help Columbus. She had been assured by Columbus that his voyage would cause millions of natives in Asia to become converts to Christianity. As she was deeply religious and saw an opportunity to carry on a great crusade, she influenced the king in favor of Columbus.

Columbus' demands. Now that Ferdinand was relieved of the task of fighting the Moors he was ready to listen to Columbus. Accordingly, a meeting was arranged and the king agreed to give the funds needed for the voyage. But when Columbus set a very high value on his own services and demanded that he be made governor-general of all the lands he might discover, Ferdinand lost patience with him. Columbus was stubborn in his idea of what he should receive in case of success. The king decided to drop the project and Columbus was left to find help elsewhere.

Spain decides to help. King John of Portugal sent him offers of help, but Columbus refused them. His brother, Bartholomew, had gone to England to lay Columbus' plan before Henry VII. A letter reached Spain at about this time requesting Columbus to appear before the English king. Ignoring this letter, penniless and discouraged, he set out overland for France.

One evening he sought shelter in the Spanish monastery at La Rabida near the French border. The prior of the monastery was quite a learned man. He was impressed with the serious attitude of his guest. He entered into a conversation with Columbus and learned of his plans. The good monk had been

chaplain at the royal palace and he hastened to send word to Isabella urging her to recall Columbus. The queen did so and succeeded in raising the funds necessary for the expedition. The king, much against his own judgment, gave his consent.

The Famous First Voyage to America—1492

Fitting out the ships. It was decided to fit out three ships. One was built especially for the trip. It was the only one of

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The Santa Maria, on which Columbus first sighted America, was the only one of his three ships which had a covered deck.

the three that had a covered deck. This was the Santa Maria. The other two vessels were owned by the Pinzon brothers of Palos who were known as bold sailors and successful merchants. These ships were the Nina and Pinta, and their owners commanded them.

All during the spring and early summer of 1492 Palos was busy with preparations for the voyage. Supplies had to be loaded aboard, the ships had to be made ready, and a crew had to be raised.

The most difficult problem was that of the crew. The adventure seemed to be too risky. The common sailors of the time were ignorant and superstitious. Very few were willing to take the chance because they were afraid of the Sea of Darkness, an imaginary sea inhabited by terrible monsters and visited by violent storms. The average sailor preferred a safer cruise. Bonuses were offered to those who would agree to go, but the recruiting made slow progress. Finally, when the ships were ready, it was necessary to offer freedom to prisoners on condition that they go on the voyage. The crew was certainly not a very desirable one but it was the best that could be obtained under the circumstances.

Setting sail for the west. On August 3, 1492, the little fleet left Palos on what was to be the most memorable voyage in history. The whole population of the little port lined the shore to wave farewell to relatives and friends on board. They felt that they were saying good-by forever, for they were almost certain that the ships would never return.

On September 6th they left the Cape Verde Islands, after making necessary repairs and taking on fresh supplies. Columbus set the course directly to the west. The test was now at hand. The world was to learn presently whether Columbus had based his plans on sound knowledge and careful study, or whether he was an idle dreamer.

Fear of the unknown. From the very beginning the fleet was beset with difficulties. When a few days out from the Cape Verde Islands it ran into a great mass of seaweed extending for miles. To make matters worse the wind died out

entirely and the ships drifted aimlessly. When at last they succeeded in passing through the seaweed they encountered rough seas and terrific winds.

The less courageous among the men began to wish they had never set out from Spain. Their fears threw them into a panic and open mutiny was threatened. Columbus was fully aware of the frame of mind of his men. He realized that they might rebel and perhaps kill him. But he stood undaunted in the face of all their grumbling. He insisted that they "sail on, and on, and on."

Change in direction. In the early part of October, after the fleet had been seven weeks out from its home port, Columbus noticed some driftwood on the water. He also observed birds flying overhead. He changed the course of his ships to follow the birds. This turned the fleet in a southwesterly direction.

Land sighted. On the night of October 11th Columbus saw a light straight ahead. He realized that they must be approaching land and felt a great relief. It is not likely that he could have controlled his men much longer. At dawn of October 12th the lookout sighted land, and later in the same day Columbus and his men landed and solemnly thanked God for protection. They had reached one of the Bahama Islands just off our coast of Florida. Columbus named the land San Salvador and claimed it for their Majesties, the King and Queen of Spain.

Some natives saw the strange vessels approach shore. They hid themselves and saw the strange men land. After a while they came out from their hiding places and looked at the white men wonderingly. Columbus called them Indians because he thought that he had reached India, the land of spices. The name has clung to these early Americans down to the present day.

The sailors were overjoyed. They had feared that they would never reach land. Now their fears gave way to delight at the discovery. All of them believed they had reached Asia. They hoped to share in some manner in the riches that might

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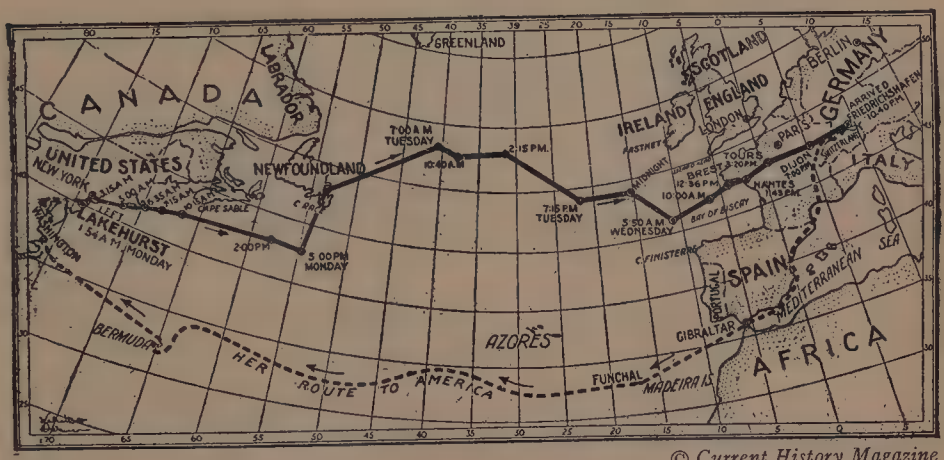
The landing of Columbus in the New World. The great explorer thought he had found a new route to the Orient.

be obtained from Japan, China, India, and the other countries of the East.

Exploring the neighboring shores. Columbus cruised a short distance farther west and discovered the islands of Cuba and Haiti in the West Indies. He thought these were some new lands off the east coast of Asia and that China and Japan were only a few miles away. But he was impatient to return to Spain with the glad news of his discovery. Leaving about

forty men in a fort on the island of Haiti, which he called Hispaniola, he set out on his homeward voyage.

Columbus' return to Spain. The little ships encountered very severe storms. But where the men had been timid and doubtful on the westward voyage, they were now full of cour-



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In 1928 the Graf Zeppelin made in three days the journey which took Columbus almost that many months. The great airship left Friedrichshafen, Germany, October 11, and landed at Lakehurst, New Jersey, October 14.

age and were determined to reach Spain. They fought the waves and winds with great pluck and skill and succeeded in reaching Palos in March of 1493.

Imagine the delighted surprise of the people of that little Spanish port when the three ships returned. Practically everybody had given them up as lost. There had been no news of the adventurers since their departure from Palos many months before. In those days it was not possible to send news of great events quickly from one distant point to another. Therefore, the people of Spain knew nothing of the success of the voyage until the fleet returned.

Failure to Open a Rich Eastern Trade

Columbus was greeted as the world's greatest navigator. His trip from Palos to the court of the monarchs who had made his voyage possible was a continuous procession in his honor. When he reached the capital a great pageant was held. Columbus and his men were treated as heroes. Ferdinand and Isabella invited him to sit beside them on the throne as an equal. Spain was in a frenzy of joy and excitement.

The people gazed with wonder on some Indians Columbus had brought back with him. Their copper skin and strange dress and manners were a constant source of interest. The Great Admiral, Christopher Columbus, had thrilled the whole Spanish nation.

The rulers of Spain saw a wonderful opportunity to make their country rich and powerful as a result of this daring voyage. Funds were provided for a second and larger expedition. The whole nation waited feverishly for the riches to be derived from the work of Columbus. No honors were regarded as too high for him. We shall learn that only a few years later he was treated quite differently.

The second voyage—1493. The excitement following the return of Columbus made it easy to organize another expedition. Practically every person free to go was eager to make the voyage to the newly-discovered islands. They saw opportunities for wealth and power, together with a promise of thrilling adventure. So many clamored for the chance to go that Columbus was faced with the problem of selecting the best qualified. Some of the best families in Spain were represented among those anxious to cross the ocean under the *Great Admiral.*

Finally it was decided to send an expedition of seventeen ships and about fifteen hundred men. The plan was to estab-

lish a Spanish settlement in the new lands. Accordingly, all sorts of equipment were placed aboard the ships. There were farm implements, household utensils, seeds, plants, horses, cattle, cloth, medicines, and many other items that might be needed in founding a settlement.

The voyage was made in 1493. The fleet landed in Hispaniola (Haiti) and set up a settlement which Columbus named Isabella in honor of the queen. A government was organized with Columbus at its head. However, he preferred to cruise among the West Indies looking for the land of spices and gold and left the settlement in charge of some subordinates. While Columbus was away things did not go well at Isabella. There was much grumbling among the settlers over the fact that they had found neither gold nor other sources of wealth. Only a very few had accompanied Columbus on his exploring expedition. The others were forced to stay at the settlement with very little to do. They were discontented and disappointed. Idleness caused them to get into mischief. They began to quarrel with each other. The men Columbus had left in charge seemed to be totally unable to preserve order. The settlement was not a success.

When Columbus returned to Spain in 1496, after having explored the West Indies, many of the settlers went back also. They told many stories of poor government in the colony. Although Columbus was not guilty of wrongdoing he was held responsible by many people for the conditions of which the returning settlers complained.

The result was that there was very little enthusiasm in Spain over a third attempt to reach the countries of India, Japan, and China. Many people were disgusted with the failure of Columbus to reach those lands. They began to feel that he had found an uncivilized section of Asia. Trade and

gold were what they wanted and Columbus had failed to find them. It was not easy, therefore, to organize a third expedition. Much time was spent in obtaining a crew.

The third voyage—1498. This time the fleet was much smaller than in 1493. When Columbus set out in 1498 he had only four ships and about two hundred men. At about that time word reached Spain that Da Gama had reached India.

The Spanish people were disappointed over the success of the Portuguese. They were bitter toward Columbus for his failure to find the new trade route before Portugal did. Columbus refused to be discouraged. He insisted that sooner or later he would find the route he was looking for and that it would be much shorter than the one found by Da Gama.

On this third voyage Columbus reached the northern coast of South America. He had finally discovered the mainland of the New World. After exploring the Caribbean Sea he returned to Hispaniola. The settlers there were very unruly. They defied Columbus when he tried to enforce the law. Charges of treason were made against him. The king sent a representative to make an investigation. This man sided with the settlers, placed Columbus under arrest, and sent him to Spain in chains as if he were a dangerous and vicious criminal.

On his arrival in Spain he was brought before the king who ordered him released at once. But it was plain that his popularity had died out. Columbus never fully recovered from the treatment he received. He became a changed man. He was gloomy and discouraged. To make matters worse for him Queen Isabella died. She had been his warm friend. He felt that he was now alone and friendless in the land for which he had done so much.

His fourth voyage—1502. In 1502 he set out on his fourth and last voyage to the west. This time he had but one

ship. He discovered the island of Trinidad and then touched the coast of Central America. He called it Costa Rica. After some time spent in making repairs to his vessel he returned to Spain. Broken in spirit and in health he died in 1506 still convinced that he had reached some outlying section of Asia.

His death caused a change in the feeling toward him among the Spanish people. They realized that they had not been fair in their treatment of Columbus. King Ferdinand had a beautiful monument built in his memory. All the honors he had failed to receive were conferred on his son Diego. All Spain joined in paying tribute to Columbus whom they had at different times laughed at as the Italian Adventurer and an Idle Dreamer, honored as the Great Admiral, and sneered at as the Admiral of Mosquito Land.

A New World

How America was named. Columbus died in the belief that he had reached Asia. But Amerigo Vespucci, another Italian seaman, declared that he had visited some of the lands and waters discovered by Columbus and insisted that a new continent had been found. Vespucci claimed that he had sailed along the east coast of what is now known as South America, from a point north of the mouth of the Amazon River to a point south of the present city of Buenos Aires. Then, he said that he sailed to the southeast. It is probable that he went almost as far south as the point reached by Commander Byrd in 1929. The ice prevented any further exploration in that direction. Turning northward, the ship touched the east coast of Africa, and finally returned to Europe, having explored the South Atlantic Ocean as well as the eastern coast of South America.

The expedition on which Vespucci sailed appears to have

been a free lance trip. Probably the ship was not enlisted as an exploring agent for any particular nation. Nevertheless the journey was important for it gave a name to the new world.

On his return Vespucci wrote some letters describing what he had seen in his voyages and insisted that he had seen the coast of a new continent. European mariners were quite familiar with the southern coast of Asia and no one had ever described a part of that continent extending as far to the south as Vespucci had gone. He described animals and plants which were different from those found in Asia. Vespucci maintained he had explored a new division of land which he called the *New World*.

About the time of Columbus' death a German teacher, Waldseemuller, wrote a geography and drew a map of the new region across the Atlantic. What Columbus had discovered was indicated as part of Asia. The southern area was a new continent, Waldseemuller said, and he named it America, or the land of Amerigo, after the first name of Vespucci. At first the new name was applied only to Brazil. Later, after new discoveries, it was applied to all of the new western world.

How Portugal kept the eastern trade. In order to avoid disputes which might arise over the claims to newly-discovered lands, Portugal and Spain laid their claims before the Pope. In the year following the discovery of America he ruled that a line running north and south 100 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands should separate the claims of Spain and Portugal. The former should have control over lands to the west of this Line of Demarcation, and the latter was to claim any lands to the east of the line. Soon afterward a treaty set the line three hundred leagues farther west. The new Line of Demarcation passed through South America giving to Portugal the land now known as Brazil, which became a Portuguese

colony. Spain in agreeing to the Line of Demarcation recognized Portugal's right to keep the monopoly of the eastern trade which Vasco da Gama's route around Africa had given her.

The Importance of the Discovery of the New World

Perhaps no one man has ever had so great an effect upon the history of the world as Columbus. He gave mankind a *New World.*

Columbus' discovery of America opened the door to modern times. Following the discovery, the leading civilized nations began to circle the earth with their trading ships searching for new markets, settling new lands, and spreading their civilization among the less civilized people of the earth. Thus they set the stage for the growth of modern nations and the development of a world-wide civilization.

The western hemisphere has been a refuge for the oppressed and unhappy of all lands and it has afforded opportunity for freedom and prosperity to millions. It is the home of a group of new democratic and progressive nations. Those of South and Central America are chiefly Spanish in civilization, while those in North America are chiefly English. The United States as the leading nation of the western hemisphere has become one of the greatest nations of the world.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

Take a separate sheet of paper and number the lines 1 to 12. Write the best of the three endings for each sentence opposite the number of the sentence.

1. Columbus spent his boyhood in Genoa where the need for a new trade route was

unknown. disregarded. the chief topic of interest.

2. Columbus probably got his idea that the earth was round from
his own original thinking. Greek ideas. Portuguese sailors.

3. Columbus studied and sailed with the most progressive group of navigators of his time when he went to
Spain. Iceland. Portugal.

4. Columbus secured help from
England. France. Spain.

5. Columbus had difficulty in getting sailors because common sailors of the time were
ignorant and fearful. untrustworthy. scarce and unskilled.

6. The land first visited by Columbus was
Cuba. Haiti. one of the Bahama Islands.

7. On his second voyage Columbus established Spanish government on the island of
Haiti. Trinidad. Cuba.

8. On his third voyage Columbus touched the mainland of
South America. Central America. North America.

9. On his fourth voyage Columbus touched the coast of
Central America. South America. North America.

10. America was named for Amerigo Vespucci because he declared that South America was
a part of India. a new continent. discovered by himself.

11. Spain confirmed Portugal's right to keep the eastern trade by accepting the
name America. claims of Vespucci. Line of Demarcation.

12. Modern times began about
1400 1500 1600

Suggested Activities

1. On the outline map of the world used with chapter XI locate India, North and South America, the Caribbean Sea, Cuba, Haiti, Costa Rica, and Brazil. Trace Columbus' first trip to America and draw the Line of Demarcation.

2. The largest of Columbus' ships, the Santa Maria, was only eighty feet long. Find out the length of one of the largest ocean going ships of the present day and compare the length of the two.

3. Find out how much longer it took Columbus to make his first voyage than it took the Graf Zeppelin to cross the Atlantic. A study of the map of the Zeppelin's trip in your text, page 163, will help you.

4. Be able to explain why Columbus was fitted for his great achievement as few other men of his time were.

References: Barstow's *Explorers and Settlers,* pages 15-35; Johnston's *Famous Discoverers and Explorers of America,* pages 17-41; Holland's *Famous Boyhoods,* chapter I.

5. Prepare to tell the class about the life of Amerigo Vespucci. Read pages 45-60 in Johnston's *Famous Discoverers and Explorers of America.* Additional information may be found in an encyclopedia.

CHAPTER XIII

HOW THE NATIONS FOUND WEALTH IN THE NEW WORLD

The central idea. The Spaniards came to America and found gold which made Spain the richest and most powerful country in the sixteenth century. The French came in the next century to build up a great fur-trade in the heart of North America. This chapter will help us to understand why a Spanish American population extends from Mexico to the tip of South America, and why there is a large population of French descent in such cities as Quebec in Canada and New Orleans in the United States.

How Gold Made Spain the Leading Nation in the Sixteenth Century

Proof that Columbus had found a New World. *Balboa's discovery of the Pacific Ocean—1513.* The discovery which proved that Vespucci was right in his claim that the land he had explored was a new continent was made by Vasco Nunez de Balboa. He was a young Spanish adventurer who had gone to the New World shortly after 1500 to seek his fortune.

Balboa settled in Cuba which was regarded as the most important Spanish possession in the west. There he proceeded to take part in many reckless adventures which earned him a reputation for daring and personal courage. However, he was inclined to be headstrong and rebellious. This brought upon him the displeasure of the Governor of Cuba. In order to escape arrest he fled from the island.

He took passage on a vessel bound for Central America. Balboa had the gift of making friends readily. His personality attracted the members of the crew and when the vessel arrived at Darien they joined him in an exploring expedition on the Isthmus of Panama.

Balboa learned from the natives that there was a great body of water across the mountains. He decided to find it. With his followers he made his way across the isthmus cutting a path through the thick jungle at the cost of much suffering. The men were determined to keep on because the Indians had told them that gold could be found in that direction. Probably the Indians meant the gold and other precious metals which came from Peru and other places on the western coast of South America.

Finally the Indian guides told Balboa that a great body of water lay just beyond a mountain they were climbing. He ordered his men to halt and made the rest of the climb alone. Looking down from the top of the mountain he saw the great sea which was later named the Pacific Ocean. Since it lay to the south, Balboa called it the South Sea. He led his men down to the water and claimed the sea with all the lands bordering on it in the name of the King of Spain. Balboa's discovery that a sea lay on the other side of the land was made in 1513.

The finding of the South Sea proved that the land was, as Vespucci claimed, a separate continent. The name *America* which had been given to Brazil was now applied to the entire region south of the Isthmus of Panama.

Magellan's voyage around the world—1519. Final proof that Columbus had discovered a new continent rather than a new route to Asia was provided by Ferdinand Magellan. He was a Portuguese captain who had made a voyage to the East by following Da Gama's route. He was convinced that a westward voyage would result in the finding of a much shorter route. In this he agreed with Columbus. Magellan believed he might find a passage through South America by means of which he could reach Asia.

Accordingly, he laid his plans before the King of Portugal who refused to equip an expedition. The king seemed to be satisfied with the route around Africa. Magellan then sought help in Spain. There his idea was favorably received and the king agreed to fit out an expedition.

In 1519 Magellan left Spain with five ships and two hundred eighty men on what has since then been regarded as one of the most important voyages in the history of the world. The little fleet soon reached the coast of South America near the mouth of the Amazon River.

Magellan cruised southward along the coast seeking a cut through the continent. He lost three weeks sailing up the rivers in a hopeless search for a passage through the continent. He continued his explorations along the coast and finally discovered the strait which now bears his name. The fleet made its way through to the sea on the west. Magellan called the great body of water the Pacific Ocean because it happened to be calm the day his fleet entered it.

His men voted against continuing the voyage. They were disappointed at their failure to reach the land of spices and pleaded with Magellan to return to Spain. One of his vessels had been wrecked and another one deserted the expedition. He ordered the rest of the fleet to continue the voyage. Supplies were very low and there seemed to be small chance of securing more. But in spite of all difficulties Magellan refused to turn back.

Violent storms tossed his ships while crossing the Pacific. Sickness broke out. His men cut leather from the ships' yards and chewed it to keep themselves alive. They were in a truly sorry plight and few of them expected to see land again.

Magellan kept to his northwest course, and at last when all hope seemed lost, the three vessels reached a group of islands.

They were called the Philippines in honor of King Philip of Spain.

Here the men rested and recovered from their terrible experience. Magellan succeeded in converting one of the chiefs to Christianity. He joined this chief in an attack on a neighboring tribe and was killed.

Only eighteen able-bodied sailors remained of all those who had set out from Spain. These men embarked on one of the vessels, the Victoria, and reached the southern coast of India. From that point they followed Da Gama's route around Africa. They arrived in Spain almost three years after they had sailed away.

In many ways this was a most marvelous voyage. It proved that Columbus had discovered a new world. The name America was now applied to the northern continent also. The voyage showed that the earth is round, because Magellan had reached the islands off the coast of Asia by sailing in a westerly direction from Europe. But it also proved that Magellan's route was not practical for trade with Asia because it was much longer than Da Gama's route around Africa.

Spanish conquerors and explorers in America. *Ponce de Leon's discovery of Florida.* The voyages of Columbus had filled the people of Spain with a desire for adventure. They believed that the lands across the Atlantic offered them endless opportunities for obtaining riches. Many young men left Spain for the new settlements expecting to return in a few years wealthy and famous. They settled in the West Indies. Within a few years those islands had a large Spanish population.

The most important Spanish settlements were on the island of Cuba. The governor of the islands had his home there. Shortly after 1500 a man named Ponce de Leon was appointed governor. The Indians told him that there was a magic foun-

tain in a land to the north of Cuba. They said that a man bathing in its waters would be restored to youth. De Leon decided to seek this fountain of youth.

In 1513, leaving his wife to rule the Spanish settlements, he set out with an expedition to find the land described by the natives. In a few days he reached the land and called it Florida because he discovered it on Easter Sunday which is called Pascua Florida in Spanish.

Of course Ponce de Leon's search for the fountain was in vain. He found extensive swamps but no magic pool. However, his voyage was important because, as the first Spaniard to reach the east coast of North America, he strengthened Spain's claim to the continent.

Cortez, conqueror and explorer of Mexico. Spanish sailors and adventurers in the Gulf of Mexico had learned from the natives along the coast that there were highly civilized Indians in the mountains to the west. These highlanders were supposed to have fine buildings and beautiful cities. The Spaniards were told that there were great stores of gold, silver, and precious stones and that these civilized Indians, whom we know as Aztecs, wore ornaments made of precious metals and gems.

The Spanish governor decided to send an exploring expedition to this wonderful land. He selected as leader Hernando Cortez, a brave and able man. In 1519, with a party of over-four hundred men, Cortez reached the coast of Mexico where he founded the town of Vera Cruz. The natives along the coast agreed to help him reach the land of the Aztecs.

Montezuma, the Aztec leader, learned of the coming of Cortez. Believing that he and his followers were white gods, he decided to offer no opposition. Cortez was welcomed into Mexico City, the Indian capital, and the Spanish soldiers were given quarters near the temple. In order to protect himself

Cortez seized Montezuma and his brother. Left without a leader, the Aztecs made no attempt to attack the Spaniards.

One day, however, some Spanish soldiers fired on some natives who were taking part in a religious festival. This act

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An adobe Indian house. The Indians in the southwestern part of our country still build their houses of adobe, or sun-dried brick. The Spaniards brought this custom from Mexico and Peru in the sixteenth century.

aroused the Aztecs who fell upon the Spaniards with fury. Montezuma's brother escaped and was made chief. He led the attack against the invaders. Cortez forced Montezuma to order the fighting stopped. The Aztecs, regarding Montezuma as a traitor, wounded him so severely that he died shortly afterward.

Cortez succeeded in fighting his way out of Mexico City but he lost most of his army and equipment. Two years later, with a larger force, he again attacked the Aztec capital and captured it in spite of a very stubborn resistance.

Cortez was made captain general of Mexico, which was now called New Spain. He explored the land northward to the Rio Grande and westward to the Pacific. On one of his expeditions he discovered the Gulf of California and Lower California. Spanish settlements were made at various points in the more attractive parts of the country. In Mexico Cortez brought the Aztecs under control. He ruled them with firmness and gradually won their respect.

The conquest of Mexico was the first of a series of conquests which gave Spain control over Central and South America.

Pizarro's conquest of Peru. Francisco Pizarro, residing in Panama, paid a visit to some of the lands along the western coast of South America. On his return to Panama he brought back strange animals, fine woolen cloth, and beautifully made gold ornaments and statuettes. He went to Spain to obtain the king's permission to explore and conquer the country of Peru which was the richest in that region.

The king made him captain general of Peru, and with several hundred followers he invaded that country in 1531. The Indians of Peru were a partly-civilized tribe called Incas. They called their ruler the Inca.

Pizarro followed a plan quite similar to that of Cortez. He seized the Inca and held him as a hostage to insure the safety of his expedition. He differed from Cortez, however, in his treatment of the captured ruler. Pizarro had only one purpose —to obtain as much gold and silver as possible. He tricked the Inca into paying an enormous ransom for his release and then failed to release him. Later the Inca was put to death.

Then the Spanish forces marched to Cuzco, the capital. They captured it and Pizarro appointed a new Inca who was willing to take Spanish orders. From that time on Pizarro extended his control over Peru and conquered the country as

Cortez had conquered Mexico. Here at last the Spaniards found gold in plenty. The coast of Peru became famous as the *Spanish Main* where the Spanish treasureships were loaded.

De Soto. One of the most daring officers under Pizarro was Hernando de Soto. After the conquest of Peru he returned to Spain with his share of the plunder. He hoped to discover other lands quite as rich as Mexico and Peru. In order to do this he applied to the king for permission to conquer and colonize Florida. The king granted the request and appointed him governor of Cuba. There was no difficulty in getting men to join the expedition. De Soto organized a force of six hundred men, mostly nobles and veteran soldiers. From Cuba the adventurers set out for Florida and anchored in Tampa Bay (1539).

The Indians were not inclined to be friendly. De Soto tried to force them to tell him where gold might be found. Since there was no precious metal in that part of the country the Indians were unable to direct him to it. De Soto thought they were unwilling to tell him and tortured them. The natives, angered by such cruelty, fought the Spaniards fiercely.

De Soto and his men suffered from the climate which was extremely hot and humid. Swarms of insects attacked them as they advanced through the Everglade swamps. Their supplies ran low and they had difficulty in getting sufficient food. There were no roads. De Soto had to fight his way through marshes, swamps, and jungles. Disease attacked the men and at times only a small part of the expedition was in good fighting trim.

Some of the men begged De Soto to return to Cuba. But he was determined to locate gold. No hardship or suffering could make him turn back. His desire for gold caused him to endure the most trying and heartbreaking difficulties. He refused to give up the adventure and the army marched on.

They worked their way northward through Florida and Georgia into the Carolinas. Then they turned southward almost to the coast of Alabama near the site of Mobile. From that point they advanced to the northwest through Mississippi and struck the Mississippi River near the present city of

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De Soto discovering the Mississippi. He first saw the Mississippi at a point near the present city of Memphis, Tennessee.

Memphis in Tennessee. They were weary to the point of exhaustion but still unwilling to give up the search for the gold which De Soto told them they were sure to find.

De Soto crossed the river in some boats built by his men and continued his search. He led his men through the present states of Arkansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, and northern Texas. Realizing that his quest for gold was probably hopeless, he returned to the Mississippi with the intention of sending to Cuba for

aid. Weakened by the many hardships he had undergone, he became ill and died.

Since he was the only Spaniard the Indians feared his men did not want them to know of his death. They sank his body

The plan of a Spanish mission. Hundreds of these were founded in America, chiefly by Franciscan monks. Mexico and her Spanish-American neighbors owe much to these early Spanish missions.

in the waters of the Mississippi, the great river which he had discovered. Despairing of locating gold they made their way down the river and finally reached the Spanish settlements in Mexico.

As an attempt to locate riches De Soto's expedition was a sad failure. He was not fortunate in that respect as Cortez and Pizarro had been. But De Soto explored most of the southern part of what is now the United States. The most important

result of his journey was the discovery of the Mississippi River in 1541.

What Latin America owes to Spain. *Work of the Spanish missionaries.* It must not be supposed that Spain had only the one purpose of gaining wealth as a reason for extending her power in the New World. She planned to civilize and make Christians of the people she conquered. Spanish treatment of the natives was not always cruel. Spain's missionaries worked hard to spread Christianity among the Indians. They were kind, sincere, and self-sacrificing. They were ready to meet any hardship and to endure any suffering in order to convert the natives.

At first the Indians were suspicious of them. But gradually they learned to appreciate the difference between the missionaries and the Spanish conquerors. They learned to trust the missionaries. Within a short time there were Catholic missions in all parts of Central and South America. In the latter part of the sixteenth century the missionaries made their way across the semidesert lands of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona to California.

The missionaries did a great deal to spread Spanish influence as well as Christianity. Each mission consisted of a church to which was attached a school in which the native children were taught to read and write Spanish. Both young and old soon spoke the Spanish language as well as their own native dialect. There was a trade school where the men were taught carpentry, masonry, and agriculture.

Under the kindly influence of the priests the Indians took up Spanish customs. Nowhere in the New World did the natives take up so thoroughly the language, religion, and customs of the white colonists as in Spanish America. Spanish influence has lasted down to the present day. The citizens of the present-

day Latin American Republics in Central and South America are still Spanish in language and civilization.

Extent of Spanish America. By 1600 Spanish settlements

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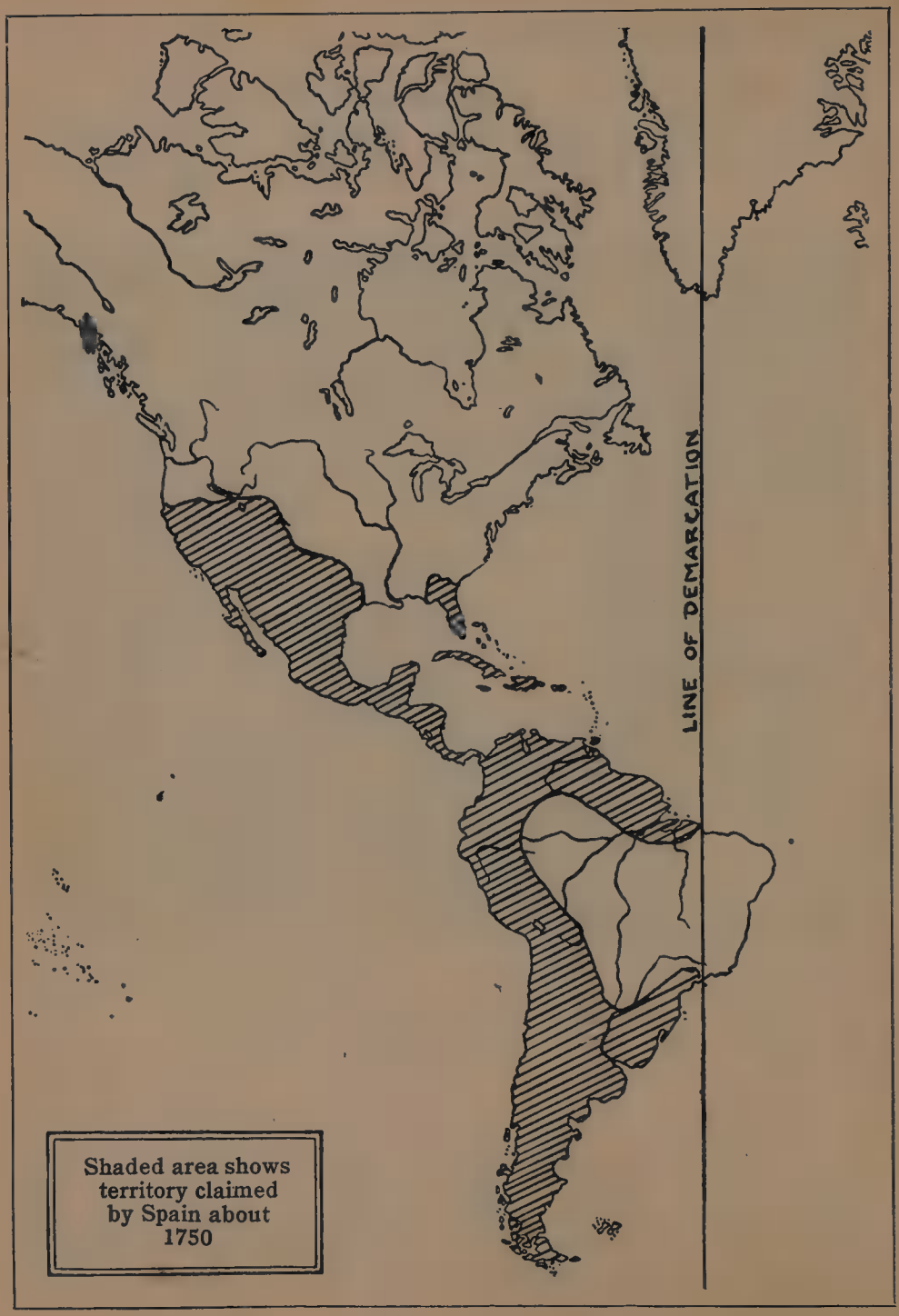
The porch of an old Spanish house, San Diego, California. The old Estudillo home is one of San Diego's treasured heritages from the Spanish occupation of California.

and missions were scattered from California to Chile. Many people had left Spain to take up permanent homes in Spanish America. There were probably as many as 175,000 Spaniards living in the New World by that time. There were about 6,000,000 Indians in the region controlled by Spain. Many of


LINE OF DEMARCATION
Shaded area shows territory claimed by Spain about 1750

the Indians had become Christians and had taken up Spanish ways. The colonies were prosperous and well governed. Spain had built a new colonial empire in America before any other European nation, except the Portuguese in Brazil, had established a single permanent colony.

Effect of New World riches on Spain. From the gold mines of Mexico and Peru a steady stream of treasureships found their way to Spain. Soon Spain became the richest country in Europe. This wealth made it possible for her to extend her power over several of her European neighbors. By the middle of the sixteenth century Spain had the most powerful navy in Europe. She had extended her rule over Austria and the lands now known as Belgium and Holland. The King of Spain might have succeeded in bringing under his control all of western Europe if it had not been for England.

How France Found Wealth in the American Fur Trade

France in the search for trade and gold. While Spain, Portugal, and England were busily engaged in seeking new trade routes, France was involved in a series of petty wars at home. The feudal system was dying, but some of the feudal nobles were strong enough to cause much worry and trouble for the king. For about fifty years (the latter half of the fifteenth century) the series of struggles continued between a rebellious group of nobles on one side and the loyal followers of the king on the other. Finally the power of the feudal nobles was destroyed and the united French nation looked to their king for leadership and guidance.

Verrazzano's voyage. It was possible now for France to turn her attention to the New World. The first navigator to be sent out by France to search for a new trade route was Verrazzano.

Like most of the great mariners of that time he was an Italian. He had found employment in France and had earned a reputation as a daring sea fighter. Verrazzano was a terror to the merchantships of Portugal and Spain. In the year before he was sent to explore in the New World, he captured one Spanish ship on its way from Mexico to Spain with a cargo of gold valued at $1,500,000. The French king looked with much favor on this reckless and courageous captain.

In a little vessel called the Dauphine, he set out on his voyage across the Atlantic. Early in 1524 he touched the American coast near Wilmington, N. C. Verrazzano cruised northward along the coast exploring as he went along. He described in detail some of the places he visited. Among them was the mouth of the Hudson River. He is recognized in New York City as the first white man to enter New York harbor.

This first French explorer sailed up the coast as far north as Newfoundland and Nova Scotia. From that point he turned his ship back to France. He made a very full report of the trip to Francis I. He received very little praise because he had brought back no gold. In fact some doubted that he had reached the New World. But it seems likely that Verrazzano had done all that he claimed. He gave such accurate descriptions of the coast, the bays, the rivers, and the land itself that it is hard to believe that he did not actually see them.

Cartier's discovery of the St. Lawrence River. Some ten years after Verrazzano's voyage to the coast of North America, another French navigator set out in search of a passage through the new continent to Asia. His name was Jacques Cartier. He set sail from St. Malo, France, in 1534. The French ruler, Francis I, had given him command of an expedition to explore the North American coast and to look for a new trade route. Cartier had been to Newfoundland as a fisherman. Crossing

the Atlantic held no terrors for him. The king felt that if any of his sailors could find the westward passage Cartier would be the man to do it.

The expedition reached Newfoundland and then explored the coast to the north hoping to discover an opening through the continent. Cartier cruised along the coast of Labrador and then retraced his route to Newfoundland.

Next he moved southward and discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He entered the great river of that name and thought it might be the route he sought. Cartier sailed up the river to the point where the rapids checked his progress. The natives gave Cartier and his men quite a friendly welcome. In the fall of that year (1534) he returned to France taking two Indian boys along with him.

The next year Cartier made another trip to the St. Lawrence River. He established settlements at Quebec and at Montreal. However, the French settlers did not have the proper kind of equipment to resist the severe northern winters. Many of them died before spring came. We are told that at one time only six men were well enough to care for the sick and dying. Naturally Cartier and those of his followers who remained alive were eager to return to France. Both settlements were abandoned and the French did not try again to settle the St. Lawrence valley until the early part of the seventeenth century.

The work of Verrazzano and Cartier had given France the right to claim the Atlantic coast of North America from Maine to Labrador as well as the valley of the St. Lawrence. The French planned to make the St. Lawrence valley the center of a New France in America.

Champlain, the founder of a fur-trading empire in the New World. *Quebec.* Almost a century after the failure of the first attempt of the French to establish a settlement in

America, Samuel de Champlain explored the eastern part of the St. Lawrence valley as well as the coast of Nova Scotia. He returned to France to report that he found no gold but did find wonderful furs in America and that the site of Quebec was the best location for a fur-trading settlement.

Champlain returned to Canada in 1608 and founded a colony at Quebec. He had planned his expedition very carefully so that he had far better equipment than Cartier. The settlement was successful from the beginning. Quebec became the first permanent French colony in America and the capital of a great fur-trading empire.

In view of the fact that the French were planning to build up a New France in America, Quebec was favorably located. It was on a high cliff overlooking the St. Lawrence River. If carefully fortified it would be able to protect the St. Lawrence valley from attacks by European rivals. At the same time it would be extremely difficult to capture.

The French did not intend to establish colonies where large numbers of Frenchmen were to make permanent homes. They meant to plant a large number of small, scattered settlements which would enable them to hold the land and control the rich fur trade.

In order to do that, they had to establish friendly relations with the Indians. They did so by trading with them, living with them in their villages, and in many cases by joining the tribes through marriage. Champlain encouraged his men to be friendly and insisted that they treat the Indians with fairness at all times.

Iroquois enemies in the Hudson valley. His policy of friendship with the neighboring Indians led him to help them in an expedition against their enemies. The natives in the St. Lawrence valley were the Algonquins. Their enemies were the

powerful Iroquois who occupied the northern part of what is now New York State.

The war party set out in the spring of 1609. It made its way through the forests south of the St. Lawrence and came upon that large lake which has since that time borne Champlain's name. The expedition crossed to the southern end of the lake where the Iroquois were encountered.

A fierce battle followed. Champlain won the day for the Algonquins by firing his gun and killing one of the Iroquois. The Iroquois had had no previous experience with guns. When they heard a shot and saw one of their number fall, they fled in terror.

Champlain explored the land near the lake and then returned to Quebec. But he had done an unfortunate thing. The Iroquois never forgave the French for their interference in the battle and always looked upon them as enemies. The Iroquois helped the English to defeat the French in the French and Indian Wars of the eighteenth century. The French might have gained control of all New York and held the rich fur trade of the Hudson and Mohawk valleys, if they had not earned the hatred of the Iroquois Indians.

Under Champlain's wise rule the French settlements prospered. In half a dozen years he had explored the St. Lawrence valley as far west as Lake Ontario. French fur-trading posts sprang up at every favorable point.

The French missionaries as explorers. Champlain believed that he could hold the friendship of the natives by converting them to Christianity. He invited Catholic missionaries to Quebec where he gave them every possible help in their work among the Indians.

Within a few years every trading post had a Catholic church, usually built by the converted Indians. As soon as the natives

in a section had become members of the church the missionary would send word to Quebec that he intended to move on. A parish priest would then be sent to the mission and the missionary would once more turn his face to the west and make his way through the wilderness to the next Indian village.

The remarkable courage and kindly attitude of the missionaries usually won them the respect and the welcome of the natives. But this was not always the case. In some instances they suffered tortures and even death. However, in spite of all hardships they steadily pushed their way westward. By 1650, in a period of thirty years, the missionaries had reached the extreme western end of Lake Superior. They had converted the Indians living between Quebec and the Strait of Mackinac, a distance of over one thousand miles.

The missionaries were as a rule highly educated men. They knew how to make maps and they wrote accurate reports of what they saw. In a sense they were the ablest explorers the French had. Practically all the early information about the land and natives of Canada and the region about the Great Lakes was gathered by the missionaries.

Marquette in the Mississippi valley. One of the French missionaries who won fame as an explorer was Father Marquette. He was the first white man to travel the upper waters of the Mississippi River. While working among the Indians on Lake Superior and Lake Michigan he learned of the great river to the southwest. Although the river had been discovered by De Soto in 1541, no one knew whether it flowed into the Atlantic, the Gulf of Mexico, or the Pacific. Father Marquette hoped that it might flow to the Pacific and provide a passage to Asia.

He resolved to trace the Mississippi to its mouth. In 1673

he set out accompanied by Joliet, an explorer sent by the governor of Quebec.

By way of the Great Lakes they reached Green Bay in what is now Wisconsin. From Green Bay they paddled down the Wisconsin River to the point where it joined the Mississippi. Then they floated down that stream to the mouth of the Ohio where friendly Indians told them that the mouth of the great river was not very far away. They said it might be reached by canoe in ten days. The small party of seven explorers continued their voyage until they reached the mouth of the Arkansas River.

At this point, information received from the Indians led Marquette to believe that the river flowed into the Gulf of Mexico. Wishing to avoid trouble with the Spaniards who occupied the land bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, Father Marquette and Joliet returned to Green Bay. They had traced almost the whole length of the river.

La Salle's explorations. The report made by Father Marquette and Joliet caused the French to turn their attention to the Mississippi valley. There was in New France a man who planned to make the whole valley of the Mississippi part of the fur-trading empire of France. He was the great nobleman, soldier, and explorer, Robert de la Salle. He had already discovered the Ohio River and explored it at least as far down as the site of Louisville, Kentucky, in the hope of finding China. Six years after Joliet's journey La Salle obtained permission from Governor Frontenac at Quebec and set out with a party of about thirty men.

La Salle intended to do two things. He wanted to place forts at various points on the Mississippi and he hoped to explore the river to its mouth. A fort at the mouth of the Mississippi would

prevent the explorers of any other nation from entering the Mississippi valley.

La Salle took a different route from that taken by Father Marquette. Starting at Green Bay the exploring party paddled to the southern end of Lake Michigan. Then they went overland to the Illinois River. There at the site of Peoria, Illinois, they built a fort which they called Crevecoeur, or Heartbreak.

The expedition rested and waited for supplies from Quebec. The vessel which was to bring the supplies across Lake Michigan did not come. Finally La Salle left the expedition in charge of his assistant, Tonti, and with five companions set out for Canada to discover why the supply ship had not arrived.

While La Salle was away, Father Hennepin, a member of the party he had left behind, followed the Illinois River to its junction with the Mississippi. He explored the Mississippi northward and reached the great falls which he called St. Anthony's Falls. The cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul are now located there. Father Hennepin built a mission and soon had a flourishing trading post at that point.

When La Salle reached Fort Niagara he discovered that the supply ship had been lost somewhere on the Great Lakes. He gathered another party of about twenty-five men and a fresh supply of provisions. When he returned to the place where he had left Tonti, he found it deserted. Hostile Iroquois had forced Tonti to leave and return to Green Bay.

Determined to go on with his plans, La Salle returned to the French settlements. There he organized another expedition and once more proceeded to the Illinois River. In severe winter weather the party followed the course of the Illinois to the Mississippi. La Salle selected a number of locations for forts and trading posts on the Illinois and buried plates of lead bearing the coat of arms of the King of France to mark the sites.

Continuing southward on the Mississippi he finally reached its mouth in April, 1682. There La Salle set up a huge cross and claimed the valley of the Mississippi and all of its tributaries for France. He called the region Louisiana in honor of Louis XIV, the King of France.

La Salle returned to Quebec to make his report to Governor Frontenac. Then he sailed for France to place his plans for colonizing Louisiana before King Louis XIV. The king was delighted and gave La Salle authority to explore Louisiana and to establish all necessary forts and settlements.

With a party of two hundred eighty men, La Salle sailed for the Gulf of Mexico to found a settlement. The fleet missed the mouth of the Mississippi and landed on the coast of Texas. After many hardships due to sickness and hostile Indians, La Salle decided to try to reach the Illinois country on foot. With a small party of grumbling men he set out on his long journey. Somewhere in northern Texas his men killed him.

La Salle had failed to carry out his far-sighted plans for a fur-trading empire in what is now the heart of the United States. But the French realized the value of the Mississippi valley. They fortified the mouth of the river and erected forts and fur-trading posts at various places in the valley. France saw that Louisiana might become a very important part of the New France she was planning to establish in America.

Spain and France in the New World

The proof that Columbus had discovered a New World gave to mankind a new viewpoint. Balboa's discovery of the South Sea (Pacific Ocean) gave evidence that the land to the west was a new world and not a part of Asia. Magellan cleared away all doubt as to the shape of the earth when one of his ships circumnavigated the globe. Within a period of thirty years,

explorers had given to the world more geographical knowledge than had been acquired in all the years before 1492.

Spain and France began looking for sources of wealth in America. Spanish explorers conquered the civilized Indians of Mexico and Peru and secured much gold from these territories. They established missions in all parts of Spanish America. They were successful in spreading the Spanish language and customs among the American Indians. The wealth which Spain derived from the gold mines of America helped to make her the leading nation of Europe.

France found wealth in the rich fur trade with the Indians. The French explorers established trading posts and forts at important points along the St. Lawrence River, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi River. French missionaries worked among the Indians and converted many of them to Christianity. By 1650 missions had been established as far west as Lake Superior. These missions helped to maintain a friendly relationship between the French and Indians.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper number the lines 1 to 15 to represent the 15 statements below. Opposite the number of each of the statements in the left hand column below write the one of the names in the right hand column that matches it.

1. Discovery of Florida	Balboa
2. Discovery of the Pacific Ocean	Magellan
3. Conquest of Mexico	Ponce de Leon
4. Voyage around the world	Aztec
5. Conquest of Peru	Cortez
6. Discovery of the Mississippi	Spanish Main
7. The Indians of Upper New York	Pizarro
8. The founding of New France	De Soto
9. Name for the gold coast of Peru	La Salle
10. Indians of Mexico	Verrazzano

11. French missionary and explorer	Cartier
12. Indians of Peru	Champlain
13. Discovery of the St. Lawrence River	Marquette
14. Founding of Louisiana	Incas
15. Discovery of New York Harbor	Iroquois

Suggested Activities

1. Find the meaning of such words as *sierra, colorado,* and *mesa* in the large English dictionary. Note that they are marked Sp. (Spanish). See if you can decide, by finding Spanish names on the map, which of our southwestern states were originally occupied by Spain. Look for Spanish names of towns, rivers, and counties. Many such names begin with *San, Santa, Los, Las, El, Del,* or *Rio.*

2. Make a map of the western hemisphere and color the territory claimed by Spain about 1750. Call the map *Spain in America.* Find out whether Spain has any possessions in the New World today.

3. Select one of the great French or Spanish explorers and find out all you can about his adventures. Prepare a report to the class on the one you select. You may find material in the following references: Butterworth's *Story of Magellan;* Johnson's *Pioneer Spaniards in America;* Johnston's *Famous Discoverers and Explorers of America;* Bank's *The Boy's Prescott, The Conquest of Mexico;* Catherwood's *The Story of Tonty,* and Barstow's *Explorers and Settlers.*

CHAPTER XIV

HOW ENGLAND ESTABLISHED HER CLAIMS IN THE NEW WORLD

The central idea. This chapter shows how England laid claim to the Atlantic coast of North America because her great sea captains explored that coast. Her sailors became so skillful that they overthrew the sea power of Spain, and her people became interested in going to the New World to earn a better living. The foundation for the United States in America was laid by the English.

England in the Search for a Western Trade Route

The Cabots reach North America—1497. Shortly after Columbus had made his second voyage England joined in the search for a new route to the East.

Bristol was a very thriving English port and ships from all parts of the world called there. Many of the captains of English ships were interested in the news that came to England of what Columbus had done. They discussed the matter earnestly in their meeting places and some may have thought of following the lead of that great navigator.

Among them was Giovanni Cabota, who was known in Bristol as John Cabot. He was a native of Genoa and as a young man had sought employment in England. Cabot had become captain of an English merchantship and had made many voyages between England and the Mediterranean ports.

Naturally he heard the gossip about the Portuguese navigators and about Columbus. He was inclined to agree with Columbus in believing that the earth is round and that one might reach the East by sailing westward across the Atlantic. Cabot also agreed with Columbus in believing that the route

around Africa would be too long and that the shortest route might be found by sailing to the west.

When word reached England of the result of the great voyage made by Columbus in 1492, Cabot was eager to make a similar voyage. He obtained some support among his friends and received authority from King Henry VII to explore any new lands in the western seas. The War of the Roses had left England poor, and Henry saw an opportunity to enrich his country out of the trade and riches that Cabot might obtain.

In May of 1497 Cabot, probably accompanied by his son Sebastian, set out from Bristol. In June he reached what he thought was the coast of China. It was probably the coast of Maine. He returned to England in July with the story of his success. The king was delighted. Cabot was given the title of Admiral and in 1498 he set out on another expedition.

During this voyage he died and his son Sebastian succeeded to the command. Sebastian discovered Labrador and Prince Edward Island before he was stopped by the ice pack in Davis Strait. Sebastian then sailed to the southwest and discovered a large island which he called Newfoundland. He explored our eastern coast probably as far south as the Carolinas and then set his course for home.

The younger Cabot had been very much impressed by the great number of codfish off the coast of Newfoundland. On his return to England he told his friends of the location of the fishing banks. Within a few years fishermen from England and France were making regular trips across the Atlantic to the coast of Newfoundland. The practice has been continued down to the present day.

In view of the fact that Cabot had failed to bring back gold from the new lands, Henry VII lost interest in him. However, shortly after the death of Columbus, Sebastian Cabot was in-

vited by King Ferdinand to visit Spain. Soon the hostility of the Spanish nobles made his stay in Spain very uncomfortable, and he returned to England. He made another voyage when he probably entered Hudson Bay. Again the ice blocked his advance and he lost all hope of finding a passage to China.

England was disappointed at his lack of success in establishing a new trade route. For a long time there was no attempt to make use of the discoveries of the Cabots. But many years later England claimed the whole Atlantic coast of North America because of their explorations.

Failure to find a northwest passage to Asia. For almost three-quarters of a century after the voyages made by the Cabots, England made no further effort to seek trade routes. Other affairs occupied the minds of the English people while Spanish adventurers found gold in Mexico and Peru and Spanish vessels carried home precious metal enough to make Spain the richest nation in Europe.

English seamen who visited the Spanish lands in the New World saw these treasureships and were inspired to try to find the sources of the gold. Therefore, in the years following 1575, a number of English mariners made attempts to discover a northwest passage to Asia.

One of them was Captain Martin Frobisher. He had spent a number of years in the service of various trading companies and had visited all the important ports. For a time he had engaged in the slave trade and had visited the Spanish colonies in Central America. There he had seen the great treasureships. He turned pirate and captured some of them. Instead of punishing him for piracy the English hailed him as a hero. When he planned to seek a northwest passage to the East he received enthusiastic support.

Frobisher reached the entrance to Hudson Bay. He sailed

northward until he was checked by the ice. He landed and met some Eskimos who were quite friendly. Realizing that he could make no further advance, he returned to England. The next year he made another voyage but met with no greater success. In 1928, the Arctic explorer, McMillan, found the remains of a hut probably erected by Frobisher during the second expedition.

Frobisher's failure did not discourage the other English seamen. There was Davis who discovered the strait which bears his name. Baffin tried to find the northwest passage. So did Cavendish. They failed to find the new route to Asia but succeeded in exploring the waters along the northern part of the Atlantic coast of North America, and in doing so strengthened England's claim to the new continent.

The only lasting results of their work are such names as Davis Strait and Baffin Land in the far northern part of our continent. There was no northwest passage to India, such as they hoped to find, and the English explorers found no gold.

How England Became the Greatest Sea Power in Europe

English sailors learned to fight Spain. Although England found no gold in the New World, her sailors were seeing to it that she got a share of American gold just the same. English ships were small and swift. The Spanish ships which were used to carry gold and silver from the mines of Mexico and Peru were large slow vessels called galleons. The English merchantships that swarmed in the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico made a regular business of robbing the treasureships of Spain and of looting the rich towns on the Isthmus of Panama. In their fast sailing vessels they could pounce suddenly upon a defenseless town or upon a stately galleon carrying home a

load of silver and gold and get away before Spain's warships could catch them.

This wholesale piracy was a great source of riches to the English and a fine training school for English sailors. England, instead of hanging her bold and lawless seamen for piracy, was proud of them.

Drake sailed around the world. One of the most important English explorers and the boldest of all the English pirates was Francis Drake. He was the first Englishman to sail around the world. Strangely enough he had no intention of sailing around the world when he started on his voyage. It was his bold plundering of the Spanish gold coast that forced him to make one of the most remarkable voyages in history.

As a young man Drake had been engaged in the slave trade. He used to make regular trips to the west coast of Africa for his human cargoes. The slave dealers found a ready market for their negroes in the Spanish settlements of Central America, and Drake had made several voyages to those colonies. The slave trade was risky because it was against the law for foreigners to trade in Spanish America. The Spanish warships were ever on the watch for the slave ships. Capture meant the loss of the ship and cargo and probable imprisonment.

On one of these slave trading ventures Drake was cornered in the harbor of Vera Cruz and attacked by Spanish ships. He barely escaped with his life, and all his property, including the money he had received for his cargo of slaves, was captured or destroyed. Drake managed to reach England and vowed to make Spain pay for his losses.

Accordingly, in 1577 he set out with a band of men as daring as himself. The expedition sailed along the coast of Africa to the equator and then crossed the Atlantic to the coast of South America. Drake passed through the Strait of Magellan into

the Pacific Ocean. Then he set his course northward along the west coast of South America. As he proceeded he attacked Spanish ships and ports. The captured ships were made part of his fleet.

When Drake reached Panama he learned that a Spanish war fleet was pursuing him. Accordingly, he continued northward up the Pacific coast as far as the present northern boundary of the United States. Floating ice made him realize he could not escape in that direction. He dared not retrace his course because of the Spanish fleet. Boldly he struck out across the Pacific. From the coast of Asia he followed Da Gama's route back to Europe. Drake had sailed around the globe. He returned to England with much booty and a small fleet of captured ships. Queen Elizabeth knighted him and he was hailed as the greatest of all English seamen.

How England defeated the great Spanish fleet. *The Dutch revolt against Spain.* During the first half of the sixteenth century Spain had gained control of the lands bordering on the North Sea, now known as Belgium and the Netherlands. During the latter part of the century the Dutch people rose in revolt against Spain. The struggle was long and bitter.

England, always ready to weaken Spain, gave all the help she could to the Dutch without openly declaring war. The Spanish ruler, Philip II, planned to strike a heavy blow at England for interfering. Accordingly, he built a great fleet to carry a vast army from Spain to England. The ships were so strong and the army so large and well equipped that the Spanish people spoke of the expedition as the *Invincible Armada.*

Word reached England of Philip's plans. Preparations were made to defend the island against the Armada. All available ships were gathered together, put into proper condition, and stationed in the English Channel or at other points along the

English coast. Lord Howard was appointed by Queen Elizabeth to command the English ships. He was ably assisted by Drake, Raleigh, Cavendish, and others of the famous English seamen.

The Spanish Armada facing the English fleet in the English Channel

Defeat of the Armada. The English awaited the coming of the Spanish fleet. Finally in 1588 it entered the English Channel. At once the swarm of little English ships attacked the great Spanish Armada. While the Spanish vessels were very large and strong they were not so skillfully handled as those of the English. The ships of the Armada were heavy and cumbersome, while the English ships were small and cleverly maneuvered by the English sailors. To make matters worse a severe storm came up.

Within a few hours very little remained of the splendid Invincible Armada. The remnants of the proud Spanish fleet tried to escape by sailing around the northern end of Scotland. They suffered heavy losses from pursuing English vessels and from a series of violent storms.

Over half of the vessels in the Armada that set out from Cadiz never returned to Spain. The great Armada had been defeated. Spain's power on the sea was broken. The year 1588 marks the beginning of English naval supremacy.

Decline of Spanish power. A few years after the defeat of her great fleet by England, Spain showed how she was losing her power when she gave up her attempts to crush the people of the Netherlands. Spanish troops were withdrawn and the people of Holland and Flanders became independent.

Holland set up its own government, while Flanders for a time became part of France. During the nineteenth century Flanders, or Belgium, became an independent nation. Spain was no longer the greatest civilized nation in the world. England had defeated her and was becoming the leading nation in Europe.

England's Claim to the Atlantic Coast of North America

Interest in the New World. The exploits of Frobisher, Drake, Baffin, Cavendish, and other English seamen thrilled the English people. The stories of adventure told by these men stirred the imagination of all classes. England began to dream of great wealth which might be found in the New World. Tales of Spanish gold from South America made Englishmen hope that they might be equally fortunate in the northern continent. They dreamed of settlements and explorations which should bring them great riches.

England claimed the whole Atlantic coast of North America and based her claim on the discoveries of Cabot, Frobisher, Baffin, and others. When her skillful seamen defeated the great fleet of Spain, she was ready to make good her claims.

England's earliest settlements fail. *Sir Humphrey Gilbert's settlement in Newfoundland.* The first Englishman to attempt to establish a colony in North America was Sir Humphrey Gilbert. He set out (1578) to found a settlement on the coast of Newfoundland. It will be remembered that many European sailors were familiar with the coast of that part of North America because of the regular fishing trips they made there.

Gilbert believed that, in case the northwest passage to Asia were found, a settlement on the coast of Newfoundland would be in a favorable location for trade. Besides, he hoped to carry on trade with the visiting fishing vessels. He made a settlement which he named St. John's, but sickness and the severe cold forced him to return to England.

Five years later, with the financial help of his half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh, he tried again. This time he had an expedition of five ships and about two hundred fifty men. Once more they landed at St. John's. Climatic conditions were so unfavorable that the men became discouraged.

They demanded that Gilbert do one of two things—return to England or lead them in search of gold. Gilbert agreed to go on an exploring expedition. When some distance from the settlement they came upon a substance which looked like gold. The men insisted on returning to England with a cargo of this ore. Of the five ships only two remained. The larger was filled with the material and the two vessels set out for Europe. Gilbert sailed on the smaller ship which was wrecked in a violent storm. Gilbert and his crew were lost. The other boat reached

England where the cargo was examined by experts. It was found to be a kind of iron ore mixed with sulphur, known as iron pyrites. It has since been called "fool's gold."

Sir Walter Raleigh's colony. The death of Gilbert did not discourage his half-brother. Sir Walter Raleigh decided to continue with the attempt at colonization, but he believed that a location farther to the south would be more suitable. Queen Elizabeth, whose favor he enjoyed, gave him a grant of land extending along the Atlantic coast from South Carolina to Chesapeake Bay. The charter stated he might settle any land not claimed by any Christian prince nor occupied by other Christian people. Queen Elizabeth was anxious to avoid war with France or Spain at that time.

Raleigh sent two ships to explore his grant. They made such a favorable report of what they had seen that Raleigh decided to go on with his plans. Accordingly, (1585) he sent one hundred settlers at his own expense. They landed on Roanoke Island off the coast of North Carolina. For a short while things went well, but soon the settlers became discouraged.

A year later when Drake on one of his cruises to the West Indies stopped at Roanoke, the colonists returned with him to England without waiting for the supplies which Raleigh had sent them. The supply ships arrived at Roanoke only a few days after the colonists had left. Fifteen men were left there as a garrison and the vessels went back to report to Raleigh.

The failure of this first colony did not cause Raleigh to give up. The very next year he fitted out a larger expedition. One hundred fifty people under the leadership of Captain White set out for the New World. They also landed at Roanoke.

The settlement met a tragic fate. Soon supplies ran low and Captain White went back to England for more. The coming of the Spanish Armada prevented his prompt return to America.

When he reached Roanoke the year following the defeat of the Armada the place was deserted. It had been agreed before Captain White sailed for England that if the settlers left they

Sir Walter Raleigh's colony at Roanoke, North Carolina, had disappeared. Captain White found only the word "Croatoan" carved on a tree.

were to carve on a tree the name of their new location. If they were forced by the Indians or other attackers to leave, they were to place a cross over the name.

After some searching, Captain White found the word "Croatoan" carved on a tree. There was no cross above the word.

White concluded that they had left of their own free will. It is possible, however, that they were attacked by Indians and the one who carved the word Croatoan did not have time to finish the carving. At any rate, the colony had disappeared.

White had not been able to obtain a ship of his own and had been forced to take passage on a vessel bound for the West Indies. The captain of the ship refused to spend any more time looking for the lost colony and White was forced to give up the search. Not one member of the lost colony was ever heard of again.

Raleigh was unable to continue his plan to establish colonies. He had spent all of his private fortune in the enterprise and was forced to drop the project.

Why England Was Slow in Making Use of Her Claims

The English had established their claims to the Atlantic coast of North America, but no successful efforts at colonization were made for more than a hundred years after the explorations of the Cabots.

After the failures of Gilbert and Raleigh to establish colonies in America the matter was dropped for a while. Other problems occupied the minds of the English people. There was the war with Spain. This meant so much to the future of England for she made herself mistress of the seas by her defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588. The war in Holland where England helped to make the Dutch free was another important matter. Changes had occurred in the industrial life of England. The nation was gradually changing from a farming country to a cattle raising and manufacturing country. With all these questions before them the English were too busy to give their attention to colonization.

Shortly after the beginning of the seventeenth century conditions in England became very trying. Many men were out of work. The wars had ended and the returning soldiers could find no employment. There was much poverty.

Parliament tried to help by passing the *Poor Laws* which provided small payments to the poor and unemployed. The former soldiers grumbled and in many cases became unruly. There was much disorder. The highways became unsafe, and in spite of the fact that Parliament imposed the penalty of death on highwaymen there were frequent robberies.

With so much unrest and dissatisfaction people naturally turned their attention to the New World. They sought adventure. Almost anything, they believed, would be better than the conditions in England.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper write the following sentences in the order in which the events happened.

1. Drake sailed around the world.
2. The Cabots reached North America.
3. Captain White failed to find Raleigh's colony on the North Carolina coast.
4. Hard times in England revived the interest of Englishmen in coming to the New World.
5. Frobisher failed to find a northwest passage to India.
6. England defeated the Spanish Armada.

Suggested Activities

1. Find out what life in England was like in the day of Drake and Raleigh.

References: Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia. (Drake, Raleigh, Elizabeth); *World Book,* (See same names); Tappan's *In the Days of Queen Elizabeth;* Buchan's *Sir Walter Raleigh; The Mentor Magazine,* (December, 1922) Volume X, page 26. You may find the bound volumes of the Mentor Magazine in the school or public libraries.

2. We found that piracy furnished a school in which English sailors learned

to handle their ships and to fight the Spaniards. Read some of the books below and write one or more paragraphs on the subject, *"The Day of Pirates."*

References: Tappan's *In the Days of Queen Elizabeth,* chapters XII and XV; Pyle's *Boy's Book of Pirates;* Stockton's *Buccanneers and Pirates of Our Coast; Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia* (Pirate, Captain Kidd); Bennett's *Barnaby Lee;* Holland's *Blackbeard's Island; St. Nicholas,* Volume XIX, pages 600-603 (1892).

TEST ON SECTION THREE

Number the lines of a sheet of paper to correspond to the numbers in the blanks below. Write the missing word for each blank opposite the corresponding number.

After the Crusades an extensive trade was carried on with the East by way of the ports of...1...and...2...on the Mediterranean. The growing trade of Europe enriched such cities as...3...in England and the cities belonging to the...4...League. Before long the nations of western Europe wanted to share the profitable eastern trade. Prince...5...of...6...planned to find an all-water route around the southern end of...7.... An all-water route to the East would be cheaper because the attacks of the...8...had made the overland routes dangerous and expensive. Five years after the discovery of America a Portuguese navigator named...9...found such a route and Portugal grew rich on the trade with the East. Columbus, an Italian sailor, accepted the idea of the ancient...10...that the world was round. In the year...11... Spain sent him across the ...12...Ocean in search of a new water route to the East. He failed to open the rich trade with the East but he opened the door to...13...times by discovering...14.... The discovery of the Pacific by ...15...and...16...'s voyage around the earth proved that a new world had been discovered. The civilization of western Europe spread to the New World. Spanish conquerors and missionaries laid the foundation for Latin America in the...17...century. Cortez conquered...18...and Pizarro conquered....19.... In the next century the French explorer Champlain founded...20...and...21... founded Louisiana. The explorations of the Cabots along the Atlantic coast of North America had given...22...a claim to that coast. The English made good their claim by destroying the seapower of...23...and attempting settlements in America.

SECTION FOUR

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE THIRTEEN COLONIES IN AMERICA

CHAPTER XV

WHY THE SOUTHERN COLONIES WERE ESTABLISHED

The central idea. Early in the seventeenth century English settlers began coming to the Atlantic coast of North America. Trading companies were formed and men secured grants of land from the English government with the hope of making money in the New World. In this chapter you will discover that the four southern colonies were settled chiefly by people who came to America to earn a better living.

Virginia, the First Colony

Trading companies. The East India Company, which was engaged in Asiatic trade, saw the possibility of making money in the New World. Some of its members formed a new trading company and obtained charters from King James I in 1606 authorizing them to establish colonies and trade in America.

The stockholders of the new company had headquarters in London and Plymouth. The two branches were known as the London Company and the Plymouth Company.

The charters defined what the companies could and could not do in the new colonies and carefully outlined the extent of their lands. The London Company was to have the territory from 34 degrees north to 38 degrees north, while the Plymouth Company was granted the land from 41 degrees north to 45 degrees north. Both were given the right to settle between 38

degrees north and 41 degrees north provided each made its settlements at least one hundred miles distant from any settlement already established by the other company.

However, the most important provision in the charters was that the companies must allow their settlers the same rights and privileges that they would enjoy in England. This provision led to very important developments in later American history.

The settlement of Jamestown by the London Company. *Disappointments of the first years.* The London Company had little difficulty in finding men to go to the New World. About a third of those who bought shares in the trading company were willing to go in person to obtain possible wealth or fame. Plenty of people who were too poor to invest money in the company were willing to go in order to escape the hard times that existed in England in this period.

Early in 1607 the London Company's first settlers set sail from London. There were three ships carrying about 120 men. Few of them were laborers or mechanics. At least half were gentlemen who had never worked for a living. Some of these regarded manual labor as beneath their dignity. Most of them had no intention of making homes in the New World but had joined the expedition hoping to find gold. Early Jamestown did not have enough of the hardy type of settlers it needed.

They sailed up the James River in Virginia in May, 1607. They made a settlement on the bank of the river about forty miles from the ocean. It was called Jamestown in honor of the king.

Jamestown was built in a very unhealthful spot. It was low, marshy, and swarming with mosquitoes. Heavy rains and heat caused most of the colonists to fall sick with fever from which more than half of them died. They did not know how to plant

the native food crops, and lack of food soon added to their sufferings. They lived in makeshift huts which failed to keep out wind and rain. Weak and discouraged, they did not have the good sense or energy to build substantial houses. The resulting exposure made them easy victims of illness. The few who managed to stay alive were still further discouraged by their failure to find gold. If it had not been for the capable and courageous management of John Smith, the settlement might not have lasted one year.

Among the first shipload who set out for the new trading colony was a stockholder by the name of John Smith. He had been one of the first to show interest in the forming of the trading company and the founding of a colony in Virginia. During the voyage he had drawn upon himself the jealousy of the others, probably by his boastful and self-assertive habit of talking. He was on the council appointed by the trading company to manage the colony in the New World. When the list of councilors, until then kept secret, was opened at Jamestown and his name was found upon it, his associates on the council refused to admit him as a member. Fortunately for the colony he was finally admitted to the council.

Captain John Smith proved to be a leader with resourcefulness, energy, and common sense. He wasted no time in the search for gold but protected the colony from the Indians and got from the savages what was infinitely more valuable than gold—the corn that kept the colonists from starving. He compelled the colonists to submit to law and order, built a church, and insisted on more extensive fishing and farming. More colonists came to Jamestown. There were frequent quarrels, but Smith was a soldier who had seen enough of the world to control the situation with a competent hand.

One of the most famous stories about Smith tells how he was

saved from death by an Indian princess. He and a party of men went to get corn from the Indians. Smith was captured by the Indians. Several weeks later he turned up in Jamestown with the story of his capture and his sentence of death.

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Pocahontas' namesake, daughter of a present-day Indian chief of Virginia. She is unveiling a monument to Chanco, the Indian who warned the colonists of an Indian massacre and saved Jamestown in 1622.

Later he told how he was rescued by the Indian princess, Pocahontas. Many historians doubt the truth of Smith's story of his rescue but it may have been true. At any rate Smith had the ability to get along with the Indians, who sold him meat and corn and taught the colonists how to live in the new land.

During the autumn of 1608 and the winter following Captain Smith was the sole ruler of Jamestown. All the other councilors had gone back to England. But the next spring five hun-

dred new colonists arrived with an adequate supply of provisions. They were under the leadership of two of Smith's former enemies in the colony. After much turmoil Smith was disabled in a gunpowder accident and his enemies contrived to have him sent home. He was charged, among other things, with having "incensed" the Indians to attack the unruly settlers.

Smith's leaving was the worst thing that could have happened to Jamestown. Left without a strong leader the colonists were pathetically unable to shift for themselves. They were late in planting crops as the company's ships had to be loaded with lumber and pitch before they returned, to pay the cost of the voyage. Their supplies gave out. They quarreled among themselves and did not keep on good terms with the Indians.

When the cold weather came they did not have the energy to cut wood in the forests but tore boards from their huts to keep the fires going. The winter following Smith's departure is known in Virginia's history as the *starving time*. Most of the colonists were dead when spring came. The rest were about to try to sail back to England when the new governor, Lord Delaware, arrived.

Prosperity in the colony. Lord Delaware was an able man and soon had matters going quite well. However, he was forced to return to England because of poor health, and Sir Thomas Dale took over the administration.

Dale was a strong man who insisted on prompt and complete obedience. He ruled with the strict methods of the army. His harsh and severe punishments made him unpopular but there can be little doubt that he saved the colony.

While Smith was leader the settlers obtained their food from the company's storehouse. It was understood that the products raised by the settlers were to be placed in this common storehouse from which each one drew his share of food.

Under this arrangement the lazy settlers did as little work as possible. When the industrious men realized that they were supporting their shiftless neighbors, they became dissatisfied and reduced their efforts. Dale did away with the idea of the common storehouse.

This led to the beginning of private landownership. Each settler was given a piece of land with the understanding that all he produced was to belong to him. For the privilege of having the land each colonist was to give to the company two and one-half barrels of corn annually. The lazy were forced to apply themselves, while the industrious settlers were delighted with this opportunity to raise large crops which the company was glad to buy.

While Dale was governor, tobacco became the chief crop in Virginia. Raleigh had introduced the habit of smoking in England. By this time a great demand for tobacco had developed and the company encouraged its production. Tobacco soon became a great source of wealth and for a time it was used as money.

The growing prosperity of the colony attracted many desirable settlers from England. These were of the serious-minded, hard-working type. They went to Virginia to build themselves permanent homes.

Wives for the colonists. The London Company wanted to make Virginia a permanent colony. The stockholders feared that most of the settlers did not intend to establish homes and remain there permanently. If a considerable number of women could be persuaded to go to Virginia as wives for the colonists, more permanent homes would be established and the success of the colony assured.

Accordingly, in 1619, the company advertised its plan of sending to its Virginia colony a boatload of women. Meanwhile the settlers had been told of the company's intention and

when the vessel arrived it was met by a crowd of interested men.

Within a short time each woman obtained a more or less satisfactory husband who had to pay the company for his wife's passage. Over one hundred women were in that remarkable boatload, and the company was certain that the same number of men would work harder than ever to raise large crops and to build and furnish homes. The experiment was so successful that from time to time more women were imported until very few male Virginians were unmarried.

The introduction of slavery. The more ambitious colonists realized that the soil might produce more tobacco if there were more laborers. Few of the farmers could give the land the care it needed because most of them could not stand the heat during the middle of the day. They tried to solve the problem by importing bonded white servants. These were persons who agreed to work for a specified period of time for any colonist who paid their passage across from England. But as no white servant could work the full day, the tobacco growers continued to give their crops only part-time cultivation.

One day in 1619 a Dutch vessel dropped anchor in the James River near Jamestown. The captain announced that he had come to trade. Part of his cargo consisted of twenty negroes. The colonists gladly purchased the negroes and put them to work on their plantations. Of course, the Africans were not bothered by the midday heat, and the tobacco planters preferred negroes to white servants who could stand less work and ran away oftener. Soon other traders arrived with negroes and found a ready market for their cargoes. Slavery was thus begun in the English colonies.

The beginning of representative government in America. It is interesting to note that in the same year in

which slavery began in Virginia, representative government was introduced in the colony.

Many of the settlers had been complaining that they had no share in the government of the colony. They pointed out that they had been promised the same rights that they had enjoyed in England. The London Company had some officials who believed heartily in representative government. George Sandys, the treasurer of the company, was fighting against the king's power over the lower house in England. He understood the point of view of the people of Virginia and saw to it that the company gave them a share in the government.

Governor Yeardley arrived in Virginia in 1619 with the new plan of colonial government. The laws for the colony were to be made by a body to be known as the House of Burgesses. This body was to be composed of two representatives selected by each of the eleven counties. Acts passed by the House of Burgesses had to have the approval of the governor who was appointed by the company. Of course, this was not complete self-government but it was a long and very important step in that direction.

The raising of tobacco, the coming of the women, the introduction of slavery, and the beginning of representative government combined to make Virginia a successful and permanent colony. Tobacco became the chief crop. By 1700 slavery was firmly established and in the rural districts there were more negroes than whites.

Virginia taken away from the trading company. In 1624 James I took away the charter of the London Company with the excuse that he felt the colonists were not properly protected against the Indians. The king preferred to govern the colony himself. From that time on Virginia was ruled by a governor appointed by the king. The king allowed the House

of Burgesses to go on meeting. As the governor's salary was paid with money voted by the House of Burgesses, he paid some attention to the measures which the Virginians passed.

Virginia's struggle for self-government. Before his death, Charles I appointed Lord Berkeley governor of Virginia. Berkeley was concerned over the welfare of the colony and there is good reason to believe that he was sincere and honest in his efforts to govern it. But he was despotic and not at all popular. He believed that education was not a good thing for the colony and he expressed himself as glad that there was not one printing press in Virginia.

When the Puritans under Cromwell ruled England they permitted Berkeley to remain as governor because they were too much occupied with affairs at home to interfere with affairs in Virginia. In 1660 when Charles II became king of England, Berkeley refused to call the annual election for members of the House of Burgesses. The body then in session pleased him and he did not want a new one elected. He had the same members hold office for fifteen years and ruled the colony as he pleased.

It must be admitted that during this time most of his acts were designed for the welfare of the people, and the colony prospered under his rule. But among the pioneers and settlers along the frontier there was grumbling against Berkeley. They felt that he was not interested in their welfare. On different occasions the Indians had attacked the outlying settlements and Berkeley had done nothing to suppress their attacks because he was interested in the fur trade.

In 1676 the Indians made another raid along the frontier and a call for help was sent to Jamestown. Berkeley refused to send aid. Nathaniel Bacon, a young settler, gathered his

neighbors together and drove off the Indians. Encouraged by his success he marched his followers to Jamestown to demand that the governor pay some attention to the rights of the people and that he make the House of Burgesses a truly representative body. In the struggle that followed, Jamestown was burned.

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The colonial jail where Bacon's rebel followers were imprisoned in 1676 at Williamsburg, Virginia.

Berkeley fled and Bacon held the upper hand. But Bacon became sick and died. Many of his followers were seized by Berkeley and hanged as rebels.

Bacon's rebellion was a failure but it is important in that it

taught the governor a lesson. The Virginians were determined to keep their right to govern their local affairs through the House of Burgesses.

Williamsburg became the capital of Virginia after the burning of Jamestown. The House of Burgesses which met there became very important in later American history. Many of the speeches defying the English crown in the period just before the Revolution were made in the House of Burgesses. Its members made Virginia a leader among the colonies.

North and South Carolina

Territory owned and governed by nobles. When Charles II became king of England in 1660 he had certain obligations to meet. Many of the prominent nobles had helped him gain the throne and he in turn granted them privileges of various kinds.

To a group of eight nobles who had supported him, he gave a tract of land extending from Virginia to Florida and from sea to sea. They called it Carolina in honor of the king.

The proprietors of Carolina wished to prevent the spread of democracy. They requested John Locke, a great English philosopher, to draw up a plan of government for Carolina. He did so and called it the Grand Model or Fundamental Constitution. It provided for a government quite similar to the feudal system of the Middle Ages. The proprietors were to have almost absolute power. The land was to remain in their possession and the settlers were not to be permitted to leave without the consent of the proprietors.

Locke's plan of government was never put into effect. The settlers opposed it vigorously and governed themselves pretty much as they were accustomed to do in England.

The settlers in North Carolina. Some time before the

king made the grant, colonists from Virginia had settled on Albemarle Sound just south of the Virginia boundary. They were a sturdy, independent lot and refused to recognize the new proprietors. There were frequent disputes, and the proprietors found it impossible to impose their authority over the settlers in the northern part of Carolina.

The settlers at Charleston. Although they had obtained the grant in 1662, the proprietors did not establish the first settlement until 1670. It was named Charleston. The settlers were Englishmen and were successful from the start.

In one way the government of Carolina was very liberal. Locke had provided that if any seven persons agreed on matters of religion they should be permitted to practice their own form of worship without interference. Many excellent settlers went to Carolina because of this privilege. French Huguenots sought refuge there. There were included in their number some of the best families of France. Later they became leaders in the life of the colony.

Carolina divided into two colonies. The proprietors did not want the colony to become thickly populated. They did not encourage colonization on a large scale. Nearly all the settlers from England built homes near Charleston while those who came from Virginia settled near Albemarle Sound.

The two settlements were so far apart that it was difficult to govern them as one colony. There was little communication between them. Roads were few and poor. The settlers in the north found it easier to deal with Virginia, while those in the south looked to England for their trade.

Finally in 1729 the proprietors gave up their claims to the king for $50,000. The colony was divided into North and South Carolina and both were from that time ruled according to the wishes of the king.

Georgia

General James Oglethorpe was the founder of Georgia. He established it as a refuge for the deserving poor of England who had been imprisoned because of inability to pay their debts. The debtor laws of England at that time provided that a debtor might be put in prison until his debts were paid. Unless friends or relatives helped him, a debtor might remain in prison indefinitely.

Oglethorpe thought that these unfortunate prisoners would do well if given the opportunity to begin life anew in America. He persuaded some wealthy friends to assist him in obtaining the release from jail of a large number of debtors. Meanwhile he had applied to the king for a grant of land just south of South Carolina. He assured the king that his new colony would protect the other English colonies against the Spaniards in Florida. The grant was obtained and General Oglethorpe made a settlement at Savannah in 1733.

The colonists proved just as incapable of shifting for themselves in Georgia as they had in England. The warm climate robbed them of what little ambition they had. It became quite plain within a short time that the colony was doomed to failure.

Oglethorpe was forced to admit he had made a mistake. However, he did not want to give up the colony and invited settlers from Germany, Scotland, and France to take up homes in Georgia. Many took advantage of Oglethorpe's offer. They were strong, energetic, capable people and gave the colony a fresh start. Georgia was the last of the thirteen original English colonies which later became the United States of America.

The Four Southern Colonies

Conditions in Europe during the seventeenth century led to the establishment of the southern colonies. The conditions

were unemployment and religious unrest and disorder. These conditions led people to turn their attention to the New World.

The establishment of the colony in Virginia by the London Company was the first successful settlement in America by the English. Some of the important events in the history of the colony of Virginia are the establishment of permanent homes in America, the introduction of slavery, and the beginning of representative government. The rebellion of Bacon showed that the colonies were determined to stand up for their right to have a voice in government.

The Carolinas were established as one colony. Later they were separated into two colonies because the two settlements which had been started were too far apart to be ruled properly as one colony.

The original purpose for the settlement of Georgia was to furnish a refuge for European debtors. This type of colonist proved unsuccessful and later German, Scotch, and French settlers were invited to come to Georgia. These sturdy settlers made Georgia a permanent colony.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper write the numbers of the sentences below. Opposite each number write the letter representing the best ending for each sentence.

1. A company is
   (a) a number of men who combine in a business undertaking.
   (b) one rich man who bears all the expenses of a business.
   (c) a group of people who settle a colony.
2. Most of the men who came to Jamestown to work for the London company were
   (a) traders and hunters.
   (b) people who wanted to make money.
   (c) members of the company.

3. John Smith's name should be remembered because
   (a) Pocahontas saved his life.
   (b) he was hurt in a gunpowder explosion.
   (c) he saved the colonists from Indian attacks and starvation.
4. The colony began to prosper when the people of Jamestown
   (a) worked for the company and got food and supplies from the company storehouse.
   (b) raised their own crops on privately owned land.
   (c) became trappers, hunters, and fur traders.
5. The coming of women to the colony was important because
   (a) permanent homes insured the success of the settlement.
   (b) most of the men in Virginia had wives and families.
   (c) each of the women found a satisfactory husband.
6. The fact that tobacco became the one important crop in Virginia
   (a) promoted slavery by requiring less skilled labor.
   (b) made skilled white servants more necessary.
   (c) required white servants because they stood the heat better than negroes.
7. The earliest representative government in America was introduced when
   (a) John Smith was admitted to the council that ruled Jamestown.
   (b) the king allowed the people of Virginia to have a House of Burgesses.
   (c) the London Company allowed the Virginians to elect a lawmaking assembly.
8. Bacon's rebellion was important because
   (a) it defended Virginia against Indian attacks upon the frontier.
   (b) it showed that the Virginians were interested in their right to govern local affairs.
   (c) it made Williamsburg the capital of Virginia.
9. French Huguenots went to North Carolina because
   (a) it was a Protestant colony.
   (b) Charleston was a thriving commercial town.
   (c) there was freedom of worship in Carolina.
10. The success of the colony of Georgia was insured by the arrival of
   (a) many debtors from the prisons of Europe.
   (b) German, Scotch, and French settlers.
   (c) General Oglethorpe to govern the colony.

Suggested Activities

1. Make a list of the subjects about which the plantation owners of the southern colonies would need to come together for discussion. Take the list

to class where the class members can hold a meeting of the House of Burgesses and make laws on the questions.

References: Barstow's *Explorers and Settlers,* "Jamestown"; Holland's *Historic Boyhoods,* chapter VI.

2. Begin a map to be used throughout the study of the thirteen colonies. Secure an outline map of the United States. Mark Virginia, Jamestown, James River, Carolina, Albemarle Sound, Charleston, and Georgia. Call this map *English Colonies in America.*

CHAPTER XVI

WHY THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES WERE ESTABLISHED

The central idea. Not long after the discovery of America the Christian Church in Europe split into many denominations. The beginning of many Protestant religions led governments to force their subjects to attend a national church. This chapter deals with the founding of the New England colonies chiefly by people who came to America so that they might follow their own form of worship without interference.

The Pilgrims

Why the Pilgrims wanted to leave England. *The Church of England.* Early in the sixteenth century a monk led a movement in Germany to reform the doctrines and practices of the church, which led to the establishment of all the Protestant churches of today. The movement he started was called *The Reformation.* His name was Martin Luther. Henry VIII, King of England, wrote a book defending the Catholic Church and attacking Luther. The Pope was so well pleased that he bestowed upon Henry the title *Defender of the Faith.* Each succeeding ruler of England has retained that title down to the present day.

A few years after this incident Henry VIII applied to the Pope for an annulment of his marriage to Queen Catherine. The Pope examined the case and then ruled that the marriage had been properly performed and therefore it could not be nullified.

Henry VIII rebelled against the Pope's ruling and announced that the church in England was no longer subject to the Pope. The church was to be a national church and the ruler of England would be its head. This was the beginning in England of

the Protestant Episcopal Church which is often called the Established Church.

Wishing to avoid trouble with his people, Henry VIII did not change the old beliefs of the Catholic Church. The people, who were intensely patriotic, liked the idea of having a national church so long as the form of worship was not changed.

Only a few prominent Catholics held out against the king. They were severely punished. In some cases they were put to death. On the whole, however, there was no widespread resistance to the king's wishes.

Henry was succeeded by Edward VI who was a boy of ten when he became king. His uncles, the Duke of Gloucester and the Duke of York, acted as regents. They decided to change many of the articles of faith. There was much opposition but the Catholics who refused to accept the reformed faith were put to death or imprisoned.

Edward died when he was sixteen, and his sister, Mary, became queen. She was a daughter of Henry VIII's first wife and had been brought up as a Catholic. Queen Mary restored the Catholic form of worship and the Pope once more exercised his authority over the English church. Protestants who insisted on having their own religion were persecuted, as Catholics had been under Edward.

Mary left no children and her sister Elizabeth became ruler of England. She was a Protestant and re-established the Church of England. However, she was not quite so severe as Edward and Mary had been. Catholics were persecuted but not with the severity which had been used under Edward. Elizabeth realized that in order to become a strong nation England could not afford to be divided on matters of religion. So long as Catholics did not carry on their form of worship publicly they were rarely molested.

Her wise handling of the problem of religion caused people to turn their attention to other matters. England grew in power during Elizabeth's reign. At her death she left England much stronger than she had found it. "Good Queen Bess," as her people called her, united the various religious groups in her kingdom. Had her successor treated the matter with the same tactful attitude there would have been no serious difficulties over religion.

When Queen Elizabeth died there was no direct heir to the throne. The relative with the best claim was James IV, King of Scotland. He became king of England in 1603 and was known as James I. The new king did not follow the policy of Queen Elizabeth in regard to religion. He insisted that everybody must conform to the form of worship of the Established Church. The Catholics were not the only people who were persecuted. Many Protestants also were treated harshly.

The Puritans. There were in the Established Church at that time a number of people who believed that the ceremonies and beliefs were too much like those of the Catholic Church. They wished to simplify or, as they expressed it, to purify the Established Church. They were the Puritans. It was their purpose to remain members of the Church but to bring about the changes they wanted.

The Separatists or Pilgrims. Another class of Protestants believed that each congregation should have the right to decide its form of worship for itself. They argued that if it was proper for the Church of England to leave the Catholic Church because it wished to be independent, it was proper for them to leave the Church of England for the same reason. They wished to separate from the Established Church and were known as Separatists. They founded what is now known as the Congre-

gational Church. A group of these Separatists are known in American history as the Pilgrims.

A congregation of these Independents or Separatists conducted religious services in the town of Scrooby. The leader of the flock was the Rev. John Robinson. Because of the per-

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Before the Pilgrims embarked for America their leader, John Robinson, bestowed his blessing upon his beloved flock. Robinson never reached America.

secution they suffered in England, the congregation decided to leave the country. The only European land which offered them the freedom of worship they sought was Holland. The Scrooby congregation went first to Amsterdam. The next year they moved to Leyden.

This group of Pilgrims were intensely loyal to England in spite of the persecutions they had suffered. After a space of about ten years they saw that their children were adopting the ways and language of the Dutch people and losing much of their English background. They did not wish to return to England. The New World offered them the chance to enjoy religious freedom and to bring up their children under the influence of English customs.

The Settlement at Plymouth—1620. *Setting sail for America.* A part of the Leyden congregation arranged with the London Company for a settlement to be made on that company's lands in the New World. In 1620 about thirty-five men, women, and children left Leyden for the voyage to America. They went to England first because the expedition was to start from Plymouth. After many delays they set sail on September 6th of that year. Their destination was a part of the coast near the mouth of the Hudson River. Enough Separatists had joined them at Plymouth to make the total number of Pilgrims about one hundred. The ship on which they sailed, the Mayflower, is perhaps the best known ship in American history.

Why the Pilgrims planned their own government. Violent winds and rough seas drove them a little off their course. They reached Cape Cod on the coast of Massachusetts on November 9th. After making several attempts to sail to the mouth of the Hudson they were forced by the severe storms to give up their original destination. They landed in what is now called Provincetown Harbor on December 21st and named the settlement Plymouth. This land did not belong to the London Trading Company.

Now that they were not going to live on the land owned by the London Trading Company, they would not be governed by the company. Since they needed some form of government,

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Plymouth Rock, famous as the Pilgrims' landing place. It lies today beneath a small colonnaded building on the shore near the site of the first houses built in Plymouth.

the Pilgrims held a meeting before landing and made an agreement called the *Mayflower Compact*. This plan of government, drawn up by themselves, led the way toward many of the ideals of American government today. The whole group solemnly agreed to "enact and obey just and equal laws." This was the first time that colonists in America had originated their own form of government.

The life of the colonists in Plymouth. *Character of the settlers.* Perhaps no colony was ever started by a more serious, determined group of settlers. They were a well-disposed and congenial body of men, women, and children. They were in-

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The Landing of the Pilgrims in America

dustrious. All of them intended to make the New World their permanent home.

In some ways they had a great advantage over other colonists so far as colonization is concerned. They were of the same religious belief and took their religion very seriously. Nearly all had come from the same part of England. They had been neighbors and friends. The fact that whole families had come to America made it possible to establish real homes.

The first winter. There were many difficulties. The climate

was much more severe than that of England. The land was rough and stony. It required much hard work to raise sufficient food. The Pilgrims met these difficulties with splendid courage and industry.

It will be recalled that the Pilgrims had landed just as winter set in. We are told that scarcely a house had been built before

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The Pilgrims carried guns as well as Bibles as they went through the snow to hear long sermons in an unheated church.

the heavy snows and the cold were upon the settlers. Many became ill because of exposure. About half of the colony died before spring came. At one time only seven persons were fit to take care of the sick and dying. It is believed that they suffered from an epidemic of influenza.

Their courage, however, never failed them. When the Mayflower returned to England in the spring of 1621 not one able-bodied settler returned with it.

Thanksgiving Day in the Plymouth Colony. In the spring the land was cleared and crops were planted. All summer the

survivors of the original band of Pilgrims worked hard in cultivating the soil. Their labor was rewarded by a bountiful harvest. Since they were a very religious people they wished to show their gratitude to God. When the crops were all har-

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The first Thanksgiving. To this day Americans follow the example of the Pilgrims in setting aside a day in November as a feast of Thanksgiving.

vested and carefully stored away, the Pilgrims set aside a day for solemn thanksgiving. They gathered together and offered prayers of thanks to God for His divine providence.

The practice of offering thanks to God was continued in the fall of each succeeding year and became a custom in New England. Our national Thanksgiving Day, however, was not established until the time of the Civil War.

Pilgrim leaders. The Rev. John Robinson never migrated to America. He had planned to make his home there but died before he could carry out his purpose.

William Brewster had been the elder or deacon of the congregation in Scrooby and later in Leyden. During the first

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Miles Standish and his sturdy band filled the Indians with wholesome respect.

winter in Plymouth he did much to keep up the courage of the settlers.

William Bradford showed so much ability as a young man that he was elected as the first governor of Plymouth when a little over thirty years of age. He ruled with wisdom and kindness and was reelected annually for thirty years. He kept a careful record of the events that occurred during his governorship and his *History of the Plymouth Plantations* is one of our best sources of the history of the colony.

Captain Miles Standish was the military leader of Plymouth.

He protected the colony against Indian attacks and his sterling courage filled the savages with a wholesome dread.

How Plymouth Colony became a part of Massachusetts. It is probable that people of the character of the Pilgrims would have been successful settlers anywhere. They conquered every obstacle. Each year saw more settlers arrive from England. By 1640 ten congregations had been established in Plymouth Colony, each in its own little town.

However, the neighboring colony on Massachusetts Bay grew so much more rapidly that it overshadowed the Plymouth Colony. In 1691 Plymouth became part of the Massachusetts Colony, and from that time on its history is combined with that of Massachusetts.

The Puritan Colony of Massachusetts Bay

The coming of the Puritans. Many Puritans also came to America where they could set up their own form of worship. The first Puritan settlement was made at Salem on Massachusetts Bay in 1628. In 1629 a group of Puritan merchants formed the Massachusetts Bay Company and obtained from King Charles I a grant of land extending from the Charles to the Merrimac River. The charter they received gave them the right to colonize the territory and to control the trade of the region.

The chief Puritan settlement was made at Boston in 1630. Between that time and 1640 over 20,000 Puritans migrated to the colony on Massachusetts Bay. It was the most important migration to America in colonial history.

Self-government among the Puritans. The Puritans had seen how the king interfered with the government of Virginia and finally took its charter away altogether. The members of the Massachusetts Bay Company who went to America took their

charter with them and held their stockholders' meetings in the New World. The officers of the company and the charter were both so far away that the king could not interfere with the governing of the colony or get hold of the charter.

In America the charter of the trading company became the plan of government for the colony. The chairman of the company was the colonial governor of the colony. The board of directors of the company became the governor's council. The stockholders' meeting of all the members of the company became the assembly of the colony and acted as the lawmaking body. Before long all of the free settlers of the colony were admitted to the right to be represented in the assembly. The Massachusetts Bay Company had cleverly turned itself into the self-governing Puritan colony of Massachusetts.

Life among the Puritans. *Their religious life.* It is a mistake to credit the Puritans or the Pilgrims with the establishment of religious freedom in America. Neither group intended to do so and neither regarded religious freedom as wise or desirable. Both the Puritans and the Pilgrims came to America to establish their own forms of worship. The freedom of worship they sought was for themselves and they believed there was plenty of room elsewhere on the continent for those of other faiths.

The Puritans went so far as to make membership in the church a necessary qualification for citizenship. Only Puritans were permitted to vote and hold office. The church was thus made part of the state and was the established faith of the colony.

The prosperity of the colony. Here again the character of the people played a very important part in the success of the colony. Like the Pilgrims the Puritans were serious-minded, determined men and women. They were industrious and skill-

ful workers. In England most of them had been engaged in business. They were extremely self-reliant and conducted the affairs of the colony in a businesslike way. Massachusetts became very prosperous and took the leadership in the commercial and cultural life of New England.

The Puritans and education. Although they were extremely intolerant in religious matters and persecuted all members of other churches who dared settle in Massachusetts, the Puritans were very liberal where education was concerned. Most of them had received good educational training in England and appreciated the value of general education. In 1647 the Massachusetts Assembly passed a law providing that each town of fifty or more families must maintain free public elementary schools. This was the beginning of the great public school system of the United States.

In 1636 the Rev. John Harvard died and left a small estate for the founding of a college. It was named Harvard College in his honor and is the first and the oldest of our American colleges.

Why the Puritans Founded Other Colonies

The founding of Connecticut—1635. This colony is unusual in that it was founded by settlers from another colony rather than by people from England.

In 1635 Thomas Hooker, a Puritan minister in what is now Cambridge, Massachusetts, led the members of his congregation westward in search of new and more fertile land. The Indians had told them of fine grazing lands in a valley which proved to be that of the Connecticut River. After two weeks of difficult and dangerous traveling they made their way across western Massachusetts to the Connecticut River and made a settlement at Hartford.

Others from Massachusetts who objected to the strict re-

ligious practices there made a settlement on the Connecticut River called Saybrook. They erected a fort for the purpose of preventing the Dutch in New Netherland from sailing up the river. Indeed the Dutch laid claim to the southern part of the Connecticut valley and only the courageous action of the settlers of Saybrook prevented them from making it part of New Netherland.

In the following year another group of Puritans established Weathersfield near the settlements already mentioned.

These three towns combined to form the colony of Connecticut. The settlers of Connecticut had no legal title to the land which they settled. In taking it they had not agreed to be governed by the king or by any charter which the king had given to a company or to a proprietor. For this reason in 1639 they drew up their own plan of government which was based, like the Mayflower Compact, on the common consent of the people. This constitution, which they called the *Fundamental Orders of Connecticut,* practically made Connecticut an independent nation. There was no mention of the King of England or of Massachusetts. The new constitution did away with religious qualifications for citizenship.

Later the king was induced to grant Connecticut a charter based on this constitution. It was so liberal that it served as the constitution of the state of Connecticut until the early part of the nineteenth century.

In 1638 a number of Puritans came across from England to found New Haven. They regarded themselves as a separate colony and did not join Connecticut. In 1665, Charles II ordered New Haven to send to England some of the judges who had sentenced Charles I to death and who fled to the colony. When New Haven refused, the king withdrew its charter and made it part of Connecticut.

How Rhode Island began—1636. Another offshoot from

Massachusetts was Rhode Island. The Rev. Roger Williams, who was a Puritan minister in Salem, incurred the disapproval of the officials of the colony by his preaching. He insisted that the colonial government should have no control over the church and that a man should be permitted to worship as he saw fit. He annoyed the officials still more by saying that the Indians were the rightful owners of the land and should be paid for any land used by the settlers. The authorities ordered him to stop such preaching. When he continued he was tried for treason and sentenced to be banished to England.

In the dead of winter in 1636 he fled to the land of the Narragansett Indians with whom he was on friendly terms. They gave him a warm welcome and provided him with food and shelter.

Roger Williams founded the town of Providence and established the first Baptist Church in America. He invited all those seeking political and religious freedom to settle in Rhode Island. No one was required to contribute to the support of any church. There was no connection between church and state. He granted complete religious freedom and while there was much wrangling among the various religious sects there was no bloodshed and no interference with the religious view of any group.

New Hampshire—1623. The earliest attempt to settle in New Hampshire was made in 1607 by the Plymouth Trading Company near the Kennebec River on the coast of what is now Maine. The settlement was a failure.

Later, two men, Mason and Gorges, received a grant of land extending from the Kennebec to the Merrimac River. They named the grant New Hampshire. In 1623 they made a settlement at Saco. Their purpose was fishing and fur-trading. The settlers were chiefly hunters, trappers, fishermen, and traders.

New Hampshire finally became part of Massachusetts. It remained so until it was made a separate colony in 1691. The northern section, however, which is now known as Maine, continued as part of Massachusetts until it became a separate state in 1820.

Why the New England Colonies United

Trouble with the Indians. At first, relations of the colonists with the natives were rather friendly. Some Indians were converted to Christianity by the Puritans. They helped to keep up the friendly spirit. But as the whites went farther and farther westward trouble arose. The Indians did not like the idea of giving up their land and the settlers rarely paid them for it. Frequently outlying settlements were attacked by disgruntled Indians who burned the settlements and killed men, women, and children.

The New England settlers often did not attempt to make friends of the Indians. Many colonists regarded all Indians as enemies and treated them with suspicion and severity.

The most serious trouble occurred in the Connecticut valley. The Pequot tribe resented the coming of the whites and shortly after the settlements were made at Hartford, Weathersfield, and Saybrook, they raided the valley and killed many settlers. A strong force was sent against the Pequots. They were surrounded in their village which was set on fire by the whites. In the battle that followed a large number of Indians were killed. This was a severe blow to the Indians and for about forty years after that there was no serious trouble.

In Massachusetts the Puritans had been on friendly terms with the great chief, Massasoit. At his death his son, Philip, became chief. He resented the westward movement and attacked the settlements in 1675. The war that followed is

known as King Philip's War. It lasted almost two years and ended with Philip's death in 1676. Most of the tribes in New England were involved. Both whites and Indians suffered heavy losses, but the power of the New England Indians was broken by the defeats suffered during this war. They did not trouble the whites in a serious way after that.

In Rhode Island the Indians were friendly because of their relations with Roger Williams, while in New Hampshire they traded with the settlers and gave very little trouble.

The New England Confederation. Four colonies, Massachusetts, Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut united for protection in 1643. They had three enemies in common; namely, the Indians on the frontiers, the Dutch to the South, and the French to the north. Two representatives from each colony composed the group of eight who were to arrange for united military action in case of need.

The confederation lasted until 1684. Although it was not a complete union and it had no power over the members except in time of war, this confederation is important because it is the first instance of union among the colonies. It indicated a willingness to work together in case of a common danger. This desire for protection finally led all the colonies to join together to form the United States of America.

The New England Colonies

Religious persecution in England and the desire of certain groups of Englishmen to worship as they chose led to the establishment of the New England colonies. This spirit of independence was reflected in the form of government which was set up by the colonies in America. The Pilgrims based their government on the Mayflower Compact which represented the common agreement among the settlers. The Puritans

who established the Massachusetts Bay Colony brought their charter from England and used it as a plan of government. This gave them more independence in governing themselves than was enjoyed by some of the southern colonies.

Connecticut was settled by discontented church members from Massachusetts Bay Colony. They established their own form of government and were practically independent for a time.

The Pilgrims and Puritans did not grant religious toleration, but persecuted those who did not accept their religious beliefs. Rhode Island was founded by Roger Williams because he was persecuted in Massachusetts on account of his religious and political beliefs. Rhode Island allowed religious freedom.

New Hampshire was established for the purpose of fishing and fur-trading. It was at one time a part of Massachusetts but later was made a separate colony.

These New England colonies established the first system of cooperation between separate colonies in America. The New England Confederation was the beginning of union among the colonies.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

Number the lines on a separate sheet of paper to correspond to the numbers of the questions below. Opposite each number write a one-word answer to the corresponding question.

1. Who began the movement which led to the rise of many Protestant churches in Europe?
2. Did the Pilgrims come to America intending to set up a self-governing colony?
3. Had the English government given them a right to settle at Plymouth?
4. In what year did the Pilgrims come to America?
5. Of what colony did Plymouth finally become a part?
6. What was the chief town in Massachusetts Bay Colony?

7. Did the Puritans want to give freedom of religion to people of other faiths?

8. Did the Puritans found the Congregational Church in America?

9. Did the Massachusetts Bay Company take its charter to America to use as the constitution of a self-governing colony?

10. From what colony did the settlers of Connecticut come?

11. Which colony was founded by a Puritan who believed in complete religious freedom?

12. What is the name of the first and oldest of our colleges?

13. What colony first established free public schools?

14. Was New Hampshire founded by people whose main idea was to make money?

15. Was the New England Confederation the first instance of union among the colonies?

Suggested Activities

1. As a class exercise, elect some member of the class to get the governor's last Thanksgiving proclamation and read it to the class. Elect another member to read the President's Thanksgiving proclamation.

2. As a class exercise, dramatize "The First Thanksgiving". Arrange for two acts:

(a) The town meeting in which it is decided to have a thanksgiving day.

(b) The celebration of the day. Elect pupils to represent leaders of the colony and let the remainder of the class represent other members of the colony.

3. To your map *English Colonies in America* add the following: Massachusetts, showing Plymouth and Boston; Connecticut; Rhode Island; and New Hampshire. Color New England red.

4. Read and be prepared to report to the class on one of the following stories from Barstow's *Explorers and Settlers:* "How the Pilgrims Came to Plymouth" by Ames, "Christmas on the Mayflower" by Stanton, or "Miles Standish and the Indians" by Jenks.

CHAPTER XVII

A DUTCH TRADING POST BECOMES THE COLONY OF NEW YORK

The central idea. The Dutch, like the English, were interested first in finding a northwest route to India and later in making money in the New World through trading. This chapter will tell how the Dutch trading post of New Netherlands became New York, one of the four largest English colonies in America.

The Dutch seek a trade route to the East. The people of Holland were naturally good mariners. They were at home on the sea. The land in Holland is low, and in some sections it is lower than the level of the sea. The hard-working people had reclaimed much of this low land by building dikes or walls to keep the water out. Pumps, operated by means of windmills, were used to keep the land behind the dikes dry.

The long coast line made the sea the easiest means of communicating with other countries. Holland was an agricultural country. It obtained all its manufactured materials, machinery, and fuel from other lands. Trade with other countries, therefore, was a very important matter.

The trade with neighboring countries gradually grew into trade with distant lands. By the end of the sixteenth century Dutch ships were visiting African and Asiatic ports. After the Dutch people became independent they gave more attention to the eastern trade. Within a short time Holland was one of the most prosperous countries in Europe.

Shortly after 1600 the Dutch merchants began to feel that it would be helpful to find a new trade route to the East. They had been following the Portuguese route around Africa, but the

merchants believed they could make greater profits and build up a greater trade by discovering a shorter route.

At first they believed a new way might be found by going around northern Europe. The Dutch East India Company engaged Henry Hudson, an Englishman, to make the attempt.

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The Dutch used windmills like these to pump the water from the low lands of Holland.

Hudson had tried to reach Asia around northern Europe. The ice had forced him to turn back at 80 degrees north, but he was confident that he would finally succeed.

In 1609 Hudson set out from Holland in the Half Moon. His route took him northward to the east coast of Greenland. Soon the ice barrier prevented him from going farther north. Hudson did not want to return to Holland and admit he had failed. Instead he decided to strike westward and seek the northwest passage the English had been trying to find.

Hudson sailed along the southern coast of Greenland. Then he went westward across the Atlantic. Floating ice forced him

to alter his course a little and he reached the coast of Maine. The Half Moon was repaired, and Hudson then explored the coast as far south as Virginia. On his return northward he entered Delaware Bay. Realizing that it was not a passage through North America, he continued northward along the coast.

He came to the entrance to New York harbor. Hudson entered the bay and was impressed with the size of the stream that flowed into it from the north. He hoped it might be the passage he sought and sailed up the river. He realized his mistake when, after passing the present site of West Point, he found that the water was no longer salt.

Hudson continued to sail up the river as far as the present site of Albany. After exploring the valley he decided to return to Holland. The Indians were friendly and he exchanged some trinkets for valuable beaver skins. He believed that, although he had failed to find the passage to Asia, he had found an excellent place for trade. His opinion led his Dutch employers to establish trading posts on the Hudson River.

On his return to Holland, Hudson stopped off at an English port. He was detained on orders from the king until he consented to do the rest of his exploring in the service of his native country. This was very fortunate for England because on his fourth voyage he discovered Hudson Bay. On this voyage his men mutinied and cast him and seven loyal sailors adrift in an open boat. When the mutineers reached England one of them confessed. The king ordered a searching party to find Hudson but all traces of him were lost. However, he had secured for England a valuable trade in furs, which was developed by the famous Hudson Bay Company.

Dutch trading posts established in the Hudson Valley. A company was formed in Holland to trade with the Indians in

the Hudson valley. It was called the West India Company. The members of it agreed with Hudson that the fur trade would prove to be very profitable. In 1613 and 1614 trading posts were established on Manhattan Island and at Fort Orange near the present site of Albany. The purpose was trade. There was no thought at that time of founding a colony. The Dutch at first merely built trading posts on the land which the English thought was theirs.

The trading posts were successful. More and more Dutch traders went to the Hudson valley. They took their families with them. By 1623 there were enough people settled on Manhattan Island to cause the government of the Netherlands to grant them a charter. The settlement was named New Amsterdam, and the whole region claimed by the Dutch was called New Netherland.

The government of the colony and the West India Company made New Amsterdam an open port. Trading vessels from other lands were welcome. Soon New Amsterdam was a thriving port with ships from all the important European countries taking part in the trade.

The prosperous Dutch colony of New Netherland. *The growth of trade.* In 1626 the company sent Peter Minuit to be governor of New Netherland. He was a capable man and the colony prospered under his rule. Minuit was very tactful in his dealings with the Indians. In order to win their confidence he purchased Manhattan Island from them. The price he paid in bits of cloth, small mirrors, bells, and rum was very low but it satisfied the Indians. They remained friendly while he was governor.

Minuit did everything in his power to develop the colony. He built fortifications for its protection. He sent messengers to Plymouth proposing trade between New England and New

Netherland. He encouraged settlers to make their homes in the Hudson valley so as to control that region for Holland. In spite of his wise administration he was not popular with the stockholders of the company. They charged him with extravagance and misuse of the company's funds and recalled him in 1632.

Farming under great landholders. The colony had turned out to be a profitable venture for the West India Company. They wished to make certain that the colony would be a permanent success. It was felt that the surest way of making New Netherland a lasting colony was by encouraging agriculture on a large scale. There was much available land on both banks of the Hudson River and the company wanted to have the valley covered with farms.

In 1629 the West India Company offered to any of its stockholders, who would take fifty or more adults to the colony at their expense, large estates on the river north of Manhattan Island. At first these grants had sixteen miles of river front and extended inland as far as the Indians would permit. So many took advantage of the company's offer that the grants had to be reduced to one mile of waterfront.

The landholders or *patroons* were to have privileges on their estates similar to those enjoyed by the old feudal nobles. Their tenants were not allowed to leave the estates without permission. All the crops raised must be offered for sale to the patroon before being taken to market. Trapping and hunting were reserved to the patroons. Mills for the grinding of wheat were controlled by them. They acted as magistrates on their lands. They were really a new landholding aristocracy. They cultivated great stretches of land. The Hudson valley produced rich crops and the permanence of New Netherland was assured.

Government of New Amsterdam. *Governor Van Twiller.*

The most influential of these patroons was Van Rensselaer whose estate covered the upper part of the valley near Albany. He had become very wealthy by means of the fur trade. He

The old Van Rensselaer house at Greenbush, New York. Van Rensselaer was the most powerful patroon in early New Amsterdam.

used his influence to have the company appoint Van Twiller to succeed Minuit. The new governor had married Van Rensselaer's niece and it was soon quite clear that Van Twiller was under the control of the powerful patroon.

Van Twiller governed for four years. During his term friendly relations were continued with the Indians and trade increased. He had some difficulties with a few of the patroons but succeeded in avoiding serious quarrels with them. He completed Fort Amsterdam and erected a number of stone buildings, such as the governor's house, a church, a barrack building, and some small shops. The directors of the West India Company objected to the bills for these improvements. A prominent colonist, De Vries, accused him of using the company's funds for himself, and Van Twiller was removed in 1637.

Governor William Kieft. William Kieft was appointed governor in 1637. His appointment was unfortunate. People began to gossip about some things he had done in Europe. The result was that when he arrived in 1638 the colonists regarded him with suspicion.

The new governor was really a capable man but he was conceited and despotic. He insisted on having his own way in everything and treated the colonists with contempt. He passed all sorts of laws regulating the everyday life of the people. One law told them what they might eat. Other laws stated what they should drink and when they should sleep. By enforcing these laws he irritated the people to the point of bitterness and made himself thoroughly disliked.

Governor Kieft was very unwise in his dealings with the Indians. He ordered them to pay tribute, and when they refused he tried to compel them to pay. The Indians resented the governor's attitude and war broke out.

Many of the patroons suffered heavy losses because of the trouble with the Indians. Led by De Vries they protested to the governor. When Kieft continued his policy of trying to crush the Indians, as well as everybody else who opposed him, some of the prominent merchants and patroons sent petitions

to the company asking for his recall. Finally in 1647 the company removed him.

Meanwhile the colony had prospered in spite of Kieft's poor management. New Netherland had become a colony of over

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Iroquois Indians from the Lake Erie Reservation. In colonial times their ancestors in northern New York were the most powerful Indians in North America.

three thousand people. Less than half the population was Dutch. There were many merchants and other colonists from various European countries. The colony was well protected. There was a strong fort at the mouth of the Hudson River. Important public buildings had been erected. In New Amsterdam streets had been laid out and some attempt was made to keep them clean.

The last of the Dutch governors. Peter Stuyvesant was ap-

pointed as Kieft's successor. His reputation was that of an honest, upright man. However, it was known that he was despotic and extremely severe. The colonists felt that he would not be much better than Kieft but they hoped for the best.

Stuyvesant arrived in New Amsterdam in 1647. He made it clear at once that he proposed to govern as he saw fit. He enforced all regulations and imposed severe punishments for slight violations of law. Those who opposed him were shown no mercy.

Two merchants who dared to protest against the governor's actions were brought to trial on charges made by ex-governor Kieft who had remained in the colony. They were found guilty and sentenced to be banished. Stuyvesant told them that if he thought they intended to appeal to the company on arriving in Holland, he would hang them at once.

The two men, Kuyter and Melyn, did appeal to the West India Company. They were permitted to return to New Amsterdam and Stuyvesant was ordered to report before the States-General of Holland. Stuyvesant did not obey the command to return but ruled so well from that time on that the matter was dropped.

In spite of his hasty temper and despotic attitude, Stuyvesant had the interest of the colony at heart. He handled the Indian problem wisely. There were some serious Indian outbreaks during his rule but they were the result of the hostility caused by Kieft. Instead of punishing the Indians, Stuyvesant called the chiefs together and made them feel that he wished to be friendly. The chiefs agreed to bury the hatchet and peace was established.

The farmers along the Hudson valley prospered once more. Their chief worry had been the Indians. The fur trade increased, especially near Albany. Important settlements were

made in what is now New Jersey. Forts were built and roads were constructed for protection of the outlying settlements. The colony was growing and there were over five thousand settlers in New Netherland by 1660.

The Dutch national church had been established in New Netherland. It was called the Dutch Reformed Church. But freedom of worship had been permitted to all settlers under the rule of the earlier governors. Even Kieft had made no attempt to interfere with the religious beliefs of the colonists.

Stuyvesant thought it was his duty to support the Dutch Reformed Church. Toward the end of his rule he persecuted all those who had other religious beliefs. This persecution was contrary to the wishes of the Company but Stuyvesant continued to imprison and otherwise molest all those who were not members of the established church.

This policy on the part of Stuyvesant caused the settlers to turn against him. It may be said that he had no friends outside of the officers who worked under him.

The Dutch seizure of New Sweden. In 1638 a Swedish colony had been established on Delaware Bay. They called it New Sweden. The chief settlement was at Wilmington. The Swedes had made the settlement under the leadership of Peter Minuit after he had been dismissed as governor of New Netherland.

Both Van Twiller and Kieft had sent word to New Sweden that the colony was on Dutch territory. The Swedes had refused to leave and New Netherland had taken no action. But Peter Stuyvesant was determined to force the Swedes to leave and to seize their territory. In 1654 with a force of seven hundred men he set out for the mouth of the South River which was the name the Dutch used for the Delaware. There was no

serious conflict. The Swedish governor yielded and Delaware became part of New Netherland.

The English claim New Netherland. England had notified Holland when the colony was established that the Hudson valley was really English soil. But no steps had been taken to force the Dutch to leave. The English had been too busy with affairs at home to give their attention to New Netherland. However, as the Dutch colony grew in size and wealth it became a menace to the success of English colonization along the Atlantic coast. New Netherland was like a wedge separating New England from the other English colonies. New Amsterdam was the finest natural port on the Atlantic coast. The West India Company was reaping great wealth from the fur trade in the Hudson valley.

England decided to assert her claim to the land occupied by the Dutch, and in 1664 an English fleet under command of Admiral Nicolls appeared in the harbor of New Amsterdam. Governor Stuyvesant was informed that he must surrender the colony to England. He refused, insisting that he would resist to the end. Admiral Nicolls prepared to attack.

Stuyvesant discovered that he could not count on the loyal support of the people. His persecutions and high-handed actions had turned them against him. Besides, less than half the settlers were Dutch. The others, most of them English, did not want to fight the fleet. Finally Stuyvesant realized that he could offer no resistance. He yielded and the English took possession. The articles of surrender provided that citizens of every race and creed were to be protected in life and property.

The surrender marked the end of Dutch rule in America although they made an attempt to recapture the colony in 1673.

During that year, while England and Holland were at war, a Dutch fleet entered New York harbor and seized the town. A few weeks later a treaty of peace was signed and the Dutch government, not knowing what the fleet had done, made no attempt to reclaim the lost colony.

New York. After Admiral Nicolls obtained the surrender of New Netherland from the Dutch in 1664 the territory was given to the Duke of York, the brother of Charles II. Before long it was divided into three colonies named New York, New Jersey, and Delaware. The first remained the property of the Duke of York. He gave New Jersey to two of his friends and sold Delaware to William Penn.

How New York gained self-government. The governor of New York was appointed by the Duke of York. The first to receive the appointment was Nicolls who was very tactful in his dealings with the Dutch settlers. He placed no restrictions on trade. The patroons were made to feel secure in their property. Religious toleration, which the Dutch had practiced before the rule of Stuyvesant, was continued. He handled the difficult situation very well and within a few years New York was a loyal English colony.

The Duke of York proved to be quite generous in his granting of privileges to the colonists. A list of rights and privileges was drawn up and was known as *The Duke's Laws*. New York was well pleased with the new code and a number of people who were dissatisfied in some of the other colonies migrated to New York.

Governor Andros. One of the prominent names in the colonial history of New York and New England is that of Sir Edmund Andros who was made governor in 1674.

The most important event during his administration was the granting of a Colonial Assembly to the colony. The people of

New York demanded the privilege of having a representative assembly similar to those of the other English colonies, and the Duke of York granted the petition in 1681.

Governor Dongan. In 1683 Thomas Dongan was appointed governor to succeed Andros. He was a soldier and had been lieutenant governor of one of the English colonies in Africa. His first official act was to call a meeting of the new Colonial Assembly. He presented to the Assembly a charter of liberties and privileges which was drawn up mostly by himself and has sometimes been called the Dongan Charter.

The new charter was the most liberal plan of government the people of colonial New York ever had. The three most important rights granted were self-government, self-taxation, and religious freedom. Although Dongan was a Catholic, his ability and open-mindedness won the respect of the people. He was the ablest of the colonial governors of New York.

Leisler's Rebellion. In 1688 the Duke of York who had become James II fled from England. He had been made a prisoner in the Tower of London and fearing that the people intended to behead him as they had done his father, Charles I, he escaped to France.

Parliament then declared the throne vacant and in 1689 requested William of Orange and Mary his wife to occupy the throne as joint rulers. Mary was the oldest child of James II.

In New York there was some confusion in regard to the government. The colony had been the property of James II and its officials had been appointed by him. The colonists felt that they were no longer bound to obey their officers. But a difference of opinion arose as to how the colony should be governed.

One group, composed mostly of the Dutch and German settlers, said that the people should elect the officers of the

government until word came from the rulers. The other group, composed almost entirely of the English residents, said that the old officials should rule until the new rulers appointed their successors.

The leader of the first group was Jacob Leisler, a German by birth but a resident of New York for thirty-five years. He was sincere in his desire to protect the interests of the people. There can be no doubt that he meant well but he was narrow-minded, hot-tempered, and self-willed. He hated the English and they had little use for him.

It happened that Leisler was captain of the guard and he used his military power to seize the government. For about a year he ruled the colony with firmness and severely punished all those who opposed him. He made many enemies, especially among the members of the upper classes, who resented his despotic manner.

William and Mary appointed Sloughter as the new governor. On the way across the Atlantic with a fleet, the vessel which carried Governor Sloughter was separated from the others during a storm. Three other vessels which made up the fleet entered New York harbor early in 1691. The lieutenant governor was on one of them, and he demanded that Leisler turn over the government to him. Leisler refused to do so unless he was shown the required documents signed by the king and queen. The lieutenant governor was unable to produce the papers because Governor Sloughter had them.

Some English soldiers who had been sent to the colony were forced to camp on Bowling Green because the fort was occupied by Leisler's guard. Leisler suspected that the fort was to be attacked. He ordered his men to fire on the English soldiers, two of whom were killed. Before anything more serious

could happen the vessel bearing the new governor entered the harbor.

Leisler was placed under arrest and tried for treason and murder. He was found guilty. Sloughter hesitated to sign the death warrant, but when word came that the Indians in north-

New York in 1697, a view of the City Hall and the "Great Docks."

ern New York were ready to take to the warpath unless Leisler was executed, he signed the warrant.

Later, Leisler's property, which had been confiscated, was restored to his family, and Parliament removed the stain of treason from his name. This event, known as Leisler's Rebellion, was really an unfortunate and stupid blunder.

Life in New York. The Leisler affair caused a great deal of bitterness and for a time interfered with the growth of the colony. However, the fur trade continued to yield large profits

and the old patroon estates along the Hudson became very productive farms. The brick-making industry had been started near Haverstraw. There was some iron mining in the upper part of the Hudson valley.

Why New York Became a Leading Colony

After Holland became an independent nation she developed an extensive trade with the East. Hoping to find a new trade route, she engaged Henry Hudson. He discovered the Hudson River in 1609. Dutch trading posts were established on the river. In 1623 New Amsterdam was settled.

The Dutch laid the foundation for a prosperous and permanent colony in New Amsterdam (New York). The colony soon became prosperous because of the rich fur trade with the Indians and because of extensive agriculture. The Dutch left an inheritance to the state of New York in the achievements of many fine old Dutch families and in the background for such delightful tales as Washington Irving's *Knickerbocker History* and *Legend of Sleepy Hollow.*

The colony of New Netherland was surrendered to the English in 1664.

After the English took possession of New Amsterdam its name was changed to New York. The city of New York soon became one of the three largest towns in the English colonies. The only port which had a bigger trade was Boston. In 1750 New York was one of the four largest English colonies in America.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

On a separate sheet of paper number the lines 1 to 12 to represent the 12 statements below. Opposite the number of each statement write the name or date below which belongs with the statement.

1. A leader in a political disturbance that aroused much bitterness	1609
2. Beginning of representative government in New York	Peter Minuit
3. The purchase of Manhattan Island from the Indians	1623
4. The date of the earliest settlement in New Netherland	patroons
5. The date of the discovery of the Hudson River	William Kieft
6. A Dutch fur-trading company	Delaware
7. An English fur-trading company	Admiral Nicolls
8. The first English governor of New York	Stuyvesant
9. A governor who caused trouble with the Indians	Dongan Charter
10. Owners of large estates in New Netherland	West India Company
11. A Swedish colony taken by the Dutch	Jacob Leisler
12. The last of the Dutch governors	Hudson Bay Company

Suggested Activities

1. Study pictures and draw illustrations representing life under Dutch rule; such as a Dutch ship, a plan of early New Amsterdam, a Dutch colonial house, and the costumes of the Dutch.

References: Gabriel's *Pageant of America,* Volume 1, pages 230-232; Pyle's *Book of the American Spirit,* pages 51, 57 , 63, 67; *Keystone Views,* The *Half Moon* of Henry Hudson; Barstow's *Explorer's and Settlers,* pages 162-189.

2. Make a list of present-day Dutch names prominent in New York and national history, such as Roosevelt and Vanderbilt.

3. Add New York, New Jersey, and Delaware to the map *English Colonies in America.* Locate and name the Hudson River.

4. Find out all you can about how New York got its name: find York in England on the map; find out what the title of the second son of the king of England is today.

5. Read one of Washington Irving's stories, *Rip Van Winkle* or *Legend of Sleepy Hollow.* Write a paragraph describing one of the Dutch scenes or characters in these tales by which Irving made Dutch life in New York famous.

CHAPTER XVIII

WHY THE MIDDLE COLONIES WERE ESTABLISHED

The central idea. The prosperity and religious toleration of the middle colonies attracted people of many nationalities and various religions. The first settlers in New York were Dutch. This chapter tells why the four other middle colonies were established and what nationalities settled them.

The Catholics in Maryland

How Maryland was governed. Shortly after Charles I succeeded his father as King of England, he gave a grant of land in America to one of his favorites. This man was George Calvert to whom the king gave the title of Lord Baltimore. The grant lay between the Potomac River and an east and west line a little north of the present city of Philadelphia. Later the territory covered by the king's grant was made considerably smaller.

Lord Baltimore planned to establish a colony where all Christians might enjoy equal religious and political rights. He was a Catholic and he wished to make it possible for members of his faith to worship God in their own way without fear of persecution. At the same time he saw no reason why all Christians should not live as neighbors in peace and harmony.

With the grant of land the king gave Lord Baltimore a charter. The document made the proprietor almost as powerful as a king. He was given the right to wage war, set up courts, grant titles of nobility, and pardon crimes. All officials were appointed by him. The King of England could not tax the colony or change its laws. The proprietor was given the right to propose all laws but they were to go into effect only after the colonists had voted on them.

Lord Baltimore pledged the allegiance of the proposed colony to the king and agreed to give his sovereign two arrowheads annually as a token of his allegiance. The new colony was to be called Maryland in honor of the Queen, Henrietta Maria. In the midst of his planning, Lord Baltimore died. His son, Cecil Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore, undertook to carry out his father's plans.

The settlement of St. Mary's. In 1634 about two hundred colonists set out for Maryland in two vessels, the Ark and the Dove. This group included both Catholics and Protestants. While Maryland is usually called the "Catholic Colony," from the very beginning most of the settlers were Protestants attracted to the colony by the religious toleration promised by Lord Baltimore. On the St. Mary's River the colonists made a settlement which they called St. Mary's.

The natives were friendly and taught the settlers how to plant corn. The squaws showed the white women how to make corn meal and corn bread. Maryland did not have to pass through a *starving time* as Virginia did. In fact, after the first harvest they were able to send a shipload of corn to Massachusetts, which they exchanged for dried fish and furs.

Life in Maryland. *Religious freedom.* Lord Baltimore's experiment worked out very well. The early settlers got along peaceably without any quarreling over differences of religion. As the colony grew in numbers it was decided to make freedom in religion part of the law. The Toleration Act was passed in 1649 granting religious freedom to all Christians. Some of the later settlers were not so liberal over matters of religion. They forgot that they had been made welcome and made life uncomfortable for the Catholics. Toward the end of the seventeenth century the Church of England was made the established church of Maryland and the Catholics were forbidden

An old plantation house in Maryland. Maryland tobacco planters had homes like those of the southern colonists.

to worship publicly. The religious toleration that Lord Baltimore had hoped for was at an end.

How people made a living. Tobacco became the chief crop as in Virginia. It was found that other crops could be raised with profit; such as corn, wheat, and fruit. Fishing was an important industry on Chesapeake Bay.

Baltimore was founded in 1729 and soon became the chief town in Maryland. There were few towns. People lived in small villages or on scattered plantations. Maryland did not become one of the large colonies but it was one of the most prosperous.

The Quakers in Pennsylvania

Religious belief of the Quakers. William Penn, who founded Pennsylvania, was a member of the religious sect known as the Society of Friends or Quakers. He had joined the sect while a student at Oxford University in England. His father, Admiral Penn, was disappointed in William when he joined the Quakers, and did all in his power to force the young man to give up his religious views. Young Penn was determined to remain a Quaker and Admiral Penn drove him from the house.

The Quakers based their religion on the belief that all men are equal before God and the law. They carried this belief to the extreme of refusing to doff their hats in the presence of any person of whatever rank.

The *Golden Rule,* "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you," was another part of their faith. For that reason they refused to bear arms as soldiers. They believed in peace but were determined to live up to their religious beliefs. Many were thrown into jail. William Penn himself escaped a prison sentence only because of his father's influence with the king.

Penn's lands in the New World. In spite of the fact that Admiral Penn had driven William from home, he left him all his property when he died. Part of the estate was a claim for £16,000 which the elder Penn had advanced to Charles II. William Penn, who had had some experience in organizing Quaker colonies in New Jersey, offered to accept a grant of land in America in place of the money.

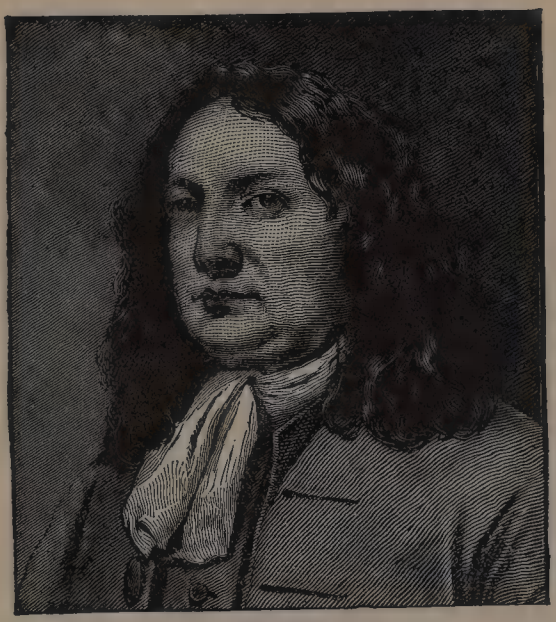
Charles II gladly agreed because this enabled him to settle the debt without paying Penn any money, and it made it possible to get rid of the troublesome Quakers. The king granted Penn an area west of the colony of New Jersey and north of Maryland covering about 40,000 square miles. Penn suggested *Sylvania* which means woodland as a suitable name, but the king called it Pennsylvania. When Penn objected because his Quaker modesty would not permit the giving of his name to the colony, Charles II told him not to be disturbed as the colony was not being named for him but for Admiral Penn.

The settlement of Philadelphia. Penn went about his colonization in a very modern way. He advertised widely in England, Holland, and Germany. Settlers were offered land at a very low price and were promised assistance in establishing homes. The charter Penn received from Charles II gave him almost unlimited power. Penn was just as liberal as was the founder of Maryland. He offered religious and political freedom.

Many accepted Penn's offer. The first settlement was established in 1681. It was named Philadelphia, which means brotherly love. Penn, with another group of colonists, went to Philadelphia in 1682. The place selected for the settlement was an excellent one. Delaware Bay and the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers soon made it a center of trade and it became the largest city in the colonies.

Penn's gift to civilization. Penn was a man of great

foresight and intelligence. He laid out the city carefully, making excellent provisions for future growth. Streets were marked off in checkerboard fashion. Open spaces were provided for future parks. Philadelphia was the first American



William Penn, who believed that cities should be planned, that prisons should reform criminals, and that governments should support vocational schools.

city planned with definite aims in view. Today all important American cities and towns have what are known as city or town planning commissions. But it must be remembered that Penn introduced the idea two and a half centuries ago.

The Quakers were on the whole a moral and well-behaved people. But Penn knew that they were not all perfect and that some members of the colony would violate the laws and would have to be punished. Jails in those days were horrible places.

The authorities all over the world believed that prisoners

were sent to jail for only one purpose—punishment. Therefore, nothing was regarded as too uncomfortable for them. The cells were damp and dark, the food was poor, and no provision was made for exercise or recreation. In many cases prisoners were forced to work at tasks which undermined their health and frequently caused death.

Penn believed that prisons had two purposes—punishment and correction. Hence, he said each jail should be a reformatory as well as a place of confinement. He believed that many become criminals because they are unable to earn a living and take a proper place in the world. Prisoners, therefore, were taught trades to enable them to obtain decent employment on being released. Penn's ideas in regard to prisons spread all over the world. In all civilized countries today prisons are reformatories as well as places of detention.

When it came to the care of the sick and the poor, Pennsylvania was far in advance of the other colonies. In fact it was in advance of most nations. Penn founded hospitals and almshouses. Of course hospitals had been in existence long before Pennsylvania established them. The poor also had been provided for before Penn did so. But this was the first time a government had undertaken to support institutions for the sick and the poor. Such welfare and uplift work had always been left to the church, which maintained charitable institutions of all kinds usually without help from the government.

Penn introduced a new idea in vocational instruction. He established industrial schools where children over twelve were taught the various trades. Up to that time the only way a child might learn a trade would be to become an apprentice in the shop of some master artisan. Penn believed such instruction should be provided by the state. Today every

progressive nation has accepted Penn's idea and put it into practice.

Relations with the Indians. The Golden Rule was the basis of Penn's dealings with the Indians. He purchased the

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William Penn purchased the land from the Indians and made them feel that they were always to be treated as friends and as equals.

land from them and made the natives feel that they were always to be treated as friends and as equals. The Indians were encouraged to mingle with the whites. They did so gladly and there was always a brisk Indian trade in Pennsylvania.

The friendship between Penn and the Indians was sealed by the Treaty of Shackamaxon. Here the Indians and the whites agreed to live in peace so long as "grass grows and water runs."

There is no record of any very serious Indian difficulties in the colonial history of Pennsylvania.

Success and growth of the colony. From the very start Penn's "holy experiment," as he called it, was a success. The settlers were a very desirable type of men and women. They were serious-minded, industrious, and sincere. Not all those who settled in Pennsylvania were from England. The promise of religious freedom attracted settlers from Scotland, Ireland, Holland, and Germany. The Scotch and Irish took up homes in the western part of the colony while the Dutch and Germans settled near the Delaware River. The descendants of the latter group have retained many of their customs and even their language and are known today as the Pennsylvania Dutch.

Trade was extensive. Philadelphia became an important port. Farming was the chief occupation with wheat and corn as the chief crops. By the middle of the eighteenth century Pennsylvania had become one of the four largest colonies in America.

The Mason and Dixon Line. Soon after the settlement of Pennsylvania, a dispute arose over the northern boundary of Maryland. Both the Quakers and the Calverts were willing to settle the difficulty in a friendly way. Two surveyors, Mason and Dixon, were engaged to lay out the boundary. They erected a line of small stone monuments which has since served as the boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland. It is known as the Mason and Dixon Line and later became famous as a dividing line between the slave and free states.

Delaware

This colony has an interesting history involving many changes of ownership. It was settled by the Swedes under

Peter Minuit in 1638 and was known as New Sweden. Governor Peter Stuyvesant took it from the Swedes and made it a part of New Netherland. The Duke of York owned it until 1682 when it was purchased by William Penn. In 1704 it

Old Swedish church at Wilmington, Delaware. Wilmington, founded in 1638 by the Swedes under Peter Minuit, was the beginning of a settlement known as New Sweden.

became a separate colony with its own legislature. However, it had the same governor as Pennsylvania until the Revolutionary War.

New Jersey

After the English seized New Netherland in 1664, the Duke of York, whose property it became, gave part of it to two friends, Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. The grant was that part of the coast between the lower Hudson and the Delaware River. Carteret had been governor of the Isle of Jersey in the English Channel and so the new colony was called New Jersey.

The Dutch had made several settlements in the territory

when it was part of New Netherland. The first English settlement was at Elizabeth in 1665.

In order to attract settlers the two proprietors offered religious toleration to all Christians, and many who were being persecuted in Europe settled in New Jersey.

Berkeley sold his share to a group of Quakers ten years after it had been given to him. This was known as West Jersey and for a time was controlled by William Penn. East Jersey was purchased from Carteret's heirs a few years later by some Quakers and Scotch Presbyterians and also came under the control of Penn. In 1702 both sections were returned to the crown and were thereafter ruled as a royal colony.

The Middle Colonies

The middle colonies were settled by people who came to America to make a better living or to enjoy religious freedom. Maryland and Pennsylvania were founded as refuges from religious persecution. Maryland was founded by the Catholics and Pennsylvania by the Quakers. Both colonies offered religious freedom to settlers of other faiths, but a large part of their population came because of the opportunity to make a better living.

Both Maryland and Pennsylvania were prosperous and progressive. The famous Toleration Act in Maryland allowed a religious freedom remarkable for that time. Pennsylvania granted religious and political freedom and introduced prison reform, hospitals, almshouses, and trade schools. Pennsylvania raised a variety of crops so that slave labor was not profitable. Maryland's chief crop was tobacco. Since a single crop requires less skilled labor than a variety of crops, slavery was established in Maryland. An early dispute over the

boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland led to the establishment of the famous Mason and Dixon Line which later became important in American history as the dividing line between the slave and the free states.

New York, to which a separate chapter has been given, was first settled by Dutch traders and farmers. It was called New Netherland. New Jersey and Delaware also were originally a part of New Netherland. When the English took possession of New Netherland in 1664 the territory was divided into three sections—New York, New Jersey, and Delaware. New Jersey had been settled by the Dutch and Delaware by the Swedes. Both colonies were for a time controlled by the Quakers of Pennsylvania.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

Number the lines on a separate sheet of paper to correspond with the statements below. Opposite each number write the best ending for the sentence having that number.

1. A rich man who owned a colony in the New World was called a
   lord. governor. proprietor.
2. Maryland was founded as a refuge for
   Puritans. Quakers. Catholics.
3. The chief crop in Maryland was
   tobacco. wheat. corn.
4. The early settlers in Pennsylvania were
   Quakers only. people of many nationalities. Englishmen only.
5. The first American city to be developed according to a city plan was
   Philadelphia. Baltimore. Elizabeth.
6. A colony which belonged successively to the Swedes, the Dutch, and the English was
   Pennsylvania. Delaware. New Jersey.
7. Both Delaware and New Jersey were for a time under the control of
   Pennsylvania. Maryland. Massachusetts.
8. At the time the Toleration Act was established in Maryland religious toleration in any country was
   the usual thing. rare. very common.

9. People of various religions came to the middle colonies because they
offered religious toleration. excluded Catholics. ignored religion.

10. The ideas that jails should reform as well as punish, that the state should care for the sick and the poor, and that vocational schools should be supported by the states were originated by
Lord Baltimore. Lord Berkeley. William Penn.

11. The people of Pennsylvania made their living chiefly by
fur trading. grain and stock farming. raising tobacco.

Suggested Activities

1. To your map, *English Colonies in America,* add Maryland and Pennsylvania. Show Baltimore and Philadelphia. Color the middle colonies green.

2. Philadelphia became the leading colonial city in population and in a number of other respects. Find out what other colonial cities were like and how Philadelphia compared with them.

References: World Book (Philadelphia); Eggleston's *Our Colonial Story,* Volume 2, pages 1-6, 134-139, 209-217.

TEST FOR SECTION FOUR

Write a sentence or a brief paragraph in answer to each of the following questions.

1. Why did most of the settlers in the four southern colonies come to America?
2. Why was 1619 a very important year in the development of America?
3. Why was Bacon's Rebellion important?
4. How did the movement called the Reformation affect the founding of the New England colonies?
5. What was the cause of the first instance of union among the colonies?
6. What permanent influence did the Dutch have on New York?
7. How did New York gain self-government?
8. Why did New York become one of the leading English colonies in America?
9. What was the attitude of English proprietors in the middle colonies toward immigrants of other nationalities?
10. What modern and progressive ideas do we owe to William Penn?

CHAPTER XIX

A SHORT STORY

The central idea. In order to understand and appreciate fully our opportunities and responsibilities as American citizens, we need to know something about our great inheritance from the past. We have followed the story of civilization from the beginning of the first civilized nation in Africa to about 1750 when the foundations for our own country were laid by the establishment of thirteen English colonies in America. This chapter will put into a short story the progress of civilization from ancient times to the beginning of our country.

While the people of Europe were still savages, the Egyptians became the first civilized people. They learned how to use metal, invented writing, built the first seagoing ships, organized an extensive government, learned to make remarkable pictures and statues, and gave us the beginnings of literature and learning. The Egyptian Empire failed because the people lost interest in their government and because of foreign invaders. However, Egyptian civilization was not lost. It influenced the later civilizations of Europe.

The Greeks were the first civilized people in Europe. They borrowed many customs from the earlier civilizations and modified them to suit their needs. The Greeks improved the alphabet by adding vowels, introduced the idea of the right of citizens to have a voice in government, built wonderful temples and decorated them with statues and paintings, wrote some of the world's greatest literary masterpieces such as the Homeric Songs and Plato's Republic, introduced the method of careful study and analysis to determine the causes of events, and proved the importance of physical education. Greek civilization influenced the people living on all the shores of the Mediterranean and those living in western Asia.

The Romans developed the second great civilization in Europe. When they conquered the Greek cities, they learned much from the Grecian civilization. To the achievements of the Greeks they added a system of law and government. The influence of the Roman system of law and government is felt down to the present time. The language of the Romans (Latin) became the language of western Europe. Out of this language developed the modern languages of France, Spain, and Italy.

During the Middle Ages after the fall of Rome there was no strong government in Europe. Of all the institutions of the time, the church exercised the strongest influence on the life of the people. Through the church much of the Roman civilization was preserved for future generations. The monasteries became the centers of learning and industry. They performed many services which were later performed by governments.

A great revival in travel, trade, and learning marked the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern times. This was brought about largely by the Crusades. The learning of the ancient Greeks and Romans returned to Europe. Travel made people acquainted with the names and customs of other lands. Trade with the East increased. Modern nations began to appear where before existed only small feudal governments whose rulers were usually fighting among themselves.

The revival of trade brought wealth to many European cities. When the overland trade routes to the East were made dangerous by the attacks of the Turks the people of Europe began looking for a cheap all-water trade route. The Portuguese were the first to undertake the search. They succeeded in finding an all-water route around the southern point of Africa.

Christopher Columbus, an Italian sailor, accepted the Greek

idea that the world was round and thought that he could reach the East by sailing westward around the world. Finally the king of Spain agreed to fit out an expedition in order that Columbus might prove his theory. In 1492 with a fleet of three small ships, Columbus sailed westward across the At-

A map showing who claimed the present territory of the United States before 1763.

lantic Ocean and found land which he thought was a part of Asia. It proved to be a New World.

When the people of Europe learned that Columbus had discovered new lands instead of reaching Asia, they set out to find sources of wealth in this New World. The Spanish explored the southern part of what is now the United States, Central America, and South America. They found great wealth in the gold of Mexico and Peru. The French found wealth in the rich fur trade. They established trading posts

along the St. Lawrence River, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi valley. The English sought wealth in the establishment of colonies along the Atlantic coast of North America. The Dutch settled the Hudson valley but later lost their claim to England. By 1750 thirteen English colonies had been established in America.

Thus the Spanish occupied all of South America except Brazil, Central America, Mexico, and the southern and western part of what is now the United States; the French occupied what is now southern Canada and the central part of the United States; the English colonies occupied a strip along the Atlantic coast of North America. The settlement of the thirteen English colonies along the Atlantic coast laid the foundation for the spread of English civilization across the continent. It was the beginning of the United States which has become the leading nation of America and one of the greatest civilizations of modern times.

Test and Study Exercises

Test Exercise

Number the lines on a sheet of paper to correspond to the numbers in the blanks below. Opposite each number write the word that belongs in the corresponding blank.

While Europeans were still uncivilized the...1...learned how to use...2..., invented...3..., built the earliest seagoing...4..., organized an extensive ...5..., learned to make remarkable buildings and statues, and gave us the beginnings of literature and learning. Civilization spread through western Asia to the...6..., who became the first civilized people in Europe and developed many new ideas. They added vowels to the....7..., developed a democratic ...8..., and laid the foundation for scientific thinking. Their artists designed buildings and carved...9...that equal the work of modern artists, and their athletic games proved the value of...10...education. The...11..., who learned much from the Greeks and added a great system of...12...and...13..., gave western Europe the foundation for its civilization. The Christian Church preserved Roman influence during the Middle Ages. The...14...caused an

increase of travel and trade, helped to destroy...15...in Europe, and started a revival of interest in learning. The increasing knowledge about geography at the end of the Middle Ages led...16...to believe that he could find a shorter and cheaper trade route to China by sailing...17...around the world. So it happened that the Europeans discovered...18...and spread their institutions to the new world. The founding of thirteen English colonies along the Atlantic coast laid the foundations for the.... 19 ....and the spread of English institutions across the North American continent.

Suggested Activities

We said that the first civilized people appeared between 4000 and 3000 B. C. (about 5000 years ago) and that modern times began about the time that America was discovered (about 500 years ago). *Draw a time line* to represent the period from 3000 B. C. to 1930 A. D. Let one inch represent 1000 years. Show on the line the date of the beginning of modern times (1500 A. D.). This will indicate the comparative length of the time of civilization before the beginning of modern times and since the beginning of modern times.

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